ELEMENTS

OF

GENERAL HISTORY,

ANCIENT AND MODERN.

BY ALEXANDER FRASER TYTLER, F. R. S. E
Professor of History in the University of Edinburgh.

WITH A

CONTINUATION TO THE

THE DEMISE OF KING GEORGE III., 1,820.

BY REV. EDWARD NARES, D. D.
Professor of Modern History in the University of Oxford

TO WHICH ARE ADDED, A SUCCINCT

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES;

WITH

ADDITIONS AND ALTERATIONS

BY AN AMERICAN GENTLEMAN.

SUPPLYING IMPORTANT OMISSIONS, BRINGING DOWN THE NARRATION OF EVENTS TO THE BEGINNING OF THE PRESENT YEAR, AND CORRECTING MANY PASSAGES RELATING TO THE

HISTORY OF THIS COUNTRY.

WITH AN IMPROVED

TABLE OF CHRONOLOGY;

A COMPARATIVE VIEW OF

ANCIENT AND MODERN GEOGRAPHY;

AND

QUESTIONS ON EACH SECTION.

ADAPTED FOR THE USE OF SCHOOLS AND ACADEMIES, BY AN EXPERIENCED TEACHER.

STEREOTYPED BY T. H. CARTER & CO. BOSTON.

CONCORD, N. H.
PRINTED BY ISAAC HILL.

1825.

D21
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"Elements of General History, ancient and modern. By Alexander Fraser Tytler, F. R S. E. Professor of History in the University of Edinburgh. With a continuation, terminating at the demise of King George III., 1,820. By Rev. Edward Nares, D. D. Professor of Modern History in the University of Oxford. To which are added, a succinct History of the United States; with additions and alterations, by an American gentleman. Supplying important omissions, bringing down the narration of events to the beginning of the present year, and correcting many passages relating to the history of this country. With an improved Table of Chronology; a comparative view of Ancient and Modern Geography; and Questions on each section. Adapted for the use of Schools and Academies, by an experienced Teacher."

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PREFACE.

THE following work contains the Outlines of a Course of Lectures on General History, delivered for many years in the University of Edinburgh, and received with a portion of the public approbation amply sufficient to compensate the labours of the author. He began to compose these Elements principally with the view of furnishing an aid to students attending his Lectures; but soon conceived, that, by giving a little more amplitude to their composition, he might render the work of more general utility. As now given to the public, he would willingly flatter himself that it may be not only serviceable to youth, in furnishing a regular plan for the prosecution of this important study, but useful even to those who have acquired a competent knowledge of general history from the perusal of the works of detached historians, and who wish to methodize that knowledge, or even to refresh their memory on material facts and the order of events.

In the composition of these Elements the author has endeavoured to unite with the detail of facts, so much of reflection as to aid the mind in the formation of rational views of the causes and consequences of events, as well as of the policy of the actors; but he has anxiously guarded against that speculative refinement which has sometimes entered into works of this nature. Such works profess to exhibit the philosophy or the spirit of history, but are more adapted to display the writer's ingenuity as a theorist, or talents as a rhetorician, than to instruct the reader in the more useful knowledge of historical facts.

As the progress of the human mind forms a capital object in the study of history, the state of the arts and sciences, the religion, laws, government, and manners of nations, are material parts, even in an elementary work of this nature. The history of literature is a most important article in this study. The author has therefore endeavoured to give to each of these topics its due share of attention; and in that view they are separately treated, in distinct sections, at particular periods of time.

ALEX. FRASER TYTLER.

Edinburgh, April 1801.

ADVERTISEMENT.

In preparing this edition, the original text of Tytler and Nares has been carefully revised and corrected. Part IV., which contains the History of South America, New Spain, and the West Indies, has been added. These countries are scarcely noticed in former editions; but they have acquired a rank and importance which make their history equally important to the plan of this work, and equally interesting, with that of most countries in Europe. Additions have also been made to many chapters in Part III., by which the history is continued to the commencement of 1,824. The Questions for Examination in the edition of 1,823, have been corrected, and new Questions are added, adapted to the additions made to the text.

The publisher has been at considerable expense in obtaining these improvements, but he trusts that they make this edition decidedly superior to any that has been hitherto published.

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INTRODUCTION.

1. THE value of any science is to be estimated according to its tendency to promote improvement, either in private virtue, or in those qualities which render man extensively useful in society. Some objects of pursuit have a secondary utility; in furnishing rational amusement, which, relieving the mind at intervals from the fatigue of serious occupation, invigorates and prepares it for fresh exertion. It is the perfection of any science, to unite these advantages, to promote the advancement of public and private virtue, and to supply such a degree of amusement, as to supersede the necessity of recurring to frivolous pursuits for the sake of relaxation. Under this description falls the science of history.

2. History, says Dionysius of Halicarnassus, is "philosophy teaching by examples." The superior efficacy of example to precept is universally acknowledged. All the laws of morality and rules of conduct are verified by experience, and are constantly submitted to its test and examination. History, which adds to our own experience an immense treasure of the experience of others, furnishes innumerable proofs, by which we may verify all the precepts of morality and of prudence.

3. History, beside its general advantages, has a distinct species of utility to different men, according to their several ranks in society, and occupations in life.

4. In this country it is an indispensable duty of every man of liberal birth, to be acquainted, in a certain degree, with the science of politics; and history is the school of politics. It opens to us the springs of human affairs; the causes of the rise, grandeur, revolutions, and fall of empires; it points out the reciprocal influence of government and of national manners; it dissipates prejudices, nourishes the love of our country, and directs to the best means of its improvement; it illustrates equally the blessings of political union, and the miseries of faction; the danger, on one hand, of anarchy, and, on the other, the debasing influence of despotic power.

5. It is necessary that the study of history should be prosecuted according to a regular plan; for this science, more perhaps than any other, is liable to perversion from its proper use. With some it is no better than an idle amusement; with others it is the food of vanity; with a third class it fosters the prejudices of party, and leads to political bigotry. It is dangerous for those who, even with the best intentions, seek for historical knowledge, to pursue the study without a guide; for no science has been so little methodized. The sources of prejudice are infinite; and the mind of youth should not be left undirected amidst the erring, the partial, and contradictory representations of historians. Besides the importance of being able to discriminate truth from falsehood, the attention ought to be directed only to useful truths. Much danger arises from the perusal of memoirs, collections of anecdotes, &c.; for many of those works exhibit the most depraved pictures, weaken our confidence in virtue, and present the most unfavourable views of human nature.

6. There are many difficulties which attend the attempt of forming a proper plan of study, and giving an instructive view of general history. Utility is to be reconciled with amusement, prejudices are to be encountered, variety of taste to be consulted, political opinions balanced, judgment and decision exercised on topics keenly controverted. The proposer of such a plan ought therefore to be possessed equally of firmness of mind and moderation of sentiment. In many cases he must abandon popularity for the calm approbation of his own conscience. Disregarding every partial and inferior consideration, he must direct his view solely to the proper end of all education, the forming of good men, and of good citizens.

7. The object and general purpose of the following course, is to exhibit a progressive view of the state of mankind, from the earliest ages of which we have any authentic accounts, down to the close of the 17th century; to delineate the origin of states and of empires, the great outlines of their history, the revolutions which they have undergone, the causes which have contributed to their rise and grandeur, and operated to their decline and extinction. For these purposes it is necessary to bestow particular attention on the manners of nations, their laws, the nature of their governments, their religion, their intellectual improvements, and their progress in the arts and sciences.

PLAN OF THE COURSE.

TWO opposite methods have been followed in giving academical lectures on the study of history: one exhibiting a strict chronological arrangement of events, upon the plan of Turselline's Epitome; the other, a series of disquisitions on the various heads or titles of public law, and the doctrines of politics; illustrated by examples drawn from ancient and modern history. Objections occur to both these methods: the former furnishes only a dry chronicle of events, which nothing connects together but the order of time; the latter is insufficient for the most important purposes of history, the tracing of events to their causes, the detection of the springs of human actions, the display of the progress of society, and of the rise and fall of states and empires; finally, by confining history to the exemplification of the doctrines of politics, we lose its effect as a school of morals.

In the following lectures we hold a middle course between these extremes, and endeavour, by remedying the imperfection of each, to unite, if possible, the advantages of both.

While so much regard is had to chronology as is necessary for showing the progress of mankind in society, and communicating just ideas of the state of the world in all the different ages to which authentic history extends, we shall, in the delineation of the rise and fall of empires and their revolutions, pay more attention to the connexion of *subject* than that of *time*.

In this view we must reject the common method of arranging general history according to epochs, or æras.

When the world is viewed at any period either of ancient or of modern history, we generally observe one nation or empire predominant, to whom all the rest bear, as it were, an under part, and to whose history we find that the principal events in the annals of other nations may be referred from some natural connexion. This predominant empire or state it is proposed to exhibit to view as the principal object, whose history therefore is to be more fully delineated, while the rest are only incidentally touched when they come to have a natural connexion with the principal.

The Jewish history, belonging to a different department of academical education, enters not into the plan of these lectures; though we often resort to the sacred writings for detached facts illustrative of the manners of ancient nations. See *Appendix*.

In the ancient world, among the profane nations, the Greeks are the earliest people who make a distinguished figure, and whose history is at the same time authentic.

The Greeks owed their civilization to the Egyptians and Phœnicians. The Grecian history is therefore properly introduced by a short account of these nations, and of the Assyrians, their rivals, conquered at one time by the Egyptians, and conquerors afterwards of them in their turn.

Rise of the independent states of Greece, and singular constitution of the two great republics of Sparta and Athens.

The war of Greece with Persia induces a short account of the preceding periods of the history of that nation, the rise of the Persian monarchy, the nature of its government, manners, and religion.

The Grecian history is pursued through all the revolutions of the nation, till Greece becomes a province of the Roman empire.

Political reflections applicable to the history of the states of Greece.—Progress of the Greeks in the arts.—Of the Greek poets,—historians,—philosophers.

Rome, after the conquest of Greece, becomes the leading object of attention.

Origin of the Romans.—Nature of their government under the kings.—Easy substitution of the consular for the regal dignity.—Subsequent changes in the constitution.—Progress to a democracy.—Extension of the Roman arms.—Conquest of Italy.—Wars with foreign nations.

The Punic wars open a collateral view to the history of Carthage and of Sicily.

Success of the Roman arms in Asia, Macedonia, and Greece.—Opulence of the republic from her conquests, and corruption of her manners.—The civil wars, and ruin of the commonwealth.

Particulars which mark the genius and national spirit of the Romans:—education,—laws,—literary character,—art of war,—public and private manners.

Rome under the emperors.—Artful policy by which the first emperors disguised their absolute authority.—Decline of the ambitious character of the Romans.—Easy submission to the loss of civil liberty.—The military spirit purposely abased by the emperors.—The empire divided becomes a languid body, without internal vigour.—The Gothic nations pour down from the north.—Italy conquered successively by the Heruli, Ostrogoths, and Lombards.—Extinction of the western empire.

The manners, genius, laws, and government of the Gothic nations, form an important object of inquiry, from their influence on the manners and policy of the modern European kingdoms.

In the delineation of modern history the leading objects of attention are more various; the scene is oftener changed: nations, which for a while occupy the chief attention, become for a time subordinate, and afterwards re-assume their rank as principal; yet the same plan is pursued as in the department of ancient history: the picture is occupied only by one great object at a time, to which all the rest hold an inferior rank, and are taken notice of only when connected with the principal.

Upon the fall of the western empire, the Saracens are the first who distinguish themselves by the extension of their conquests, and the splendour of their dominion.

While the Saracens extend their arms in the east and in Africa, a new empire of the west is founded by Charlemagne.—The rise and progress of the monarchy of the Franks.—The origin of the feudal system.—State of the European manners in the age of Charlemagne.—Government, arts and sciences, literature.

As collateral objects of attention, we survey the remains of the Roman empire in the east; the conquests and settlements of the Normans; the foundation and progress of the temporal dominion of the church of Rome; the conquest of Spain by the Saracens.

The conquest of England by the Normans solicits our attention to the history of Britain. Retrospective view of the British history, from its earliest period to the end of the Anglo-Saxon government in England.—Observations on the government, laws, and manners, of the Anglo-Saxons.

Collateral view of the state of the continental kingdoms of Europe, during the ninth, tenth, and eleventh centuries.—France under the Capetian race of monarchs.—Conquests of the Normans in Italy and Sicily.—State of the northern kingdoms of Europe. The eastern empire.—Empire of Germany.—Disputes of supremacy between the popes and the emperors.

The history of Britain still the principal object of attention.—England under the kings of the Norman line, and the first princes of the Plantagenet branch.—The conquest of Ireland, under Henry II., introduces an anticipated progressive view of the political connexion between England and Ireland down to the present time. As we proceed in the delineation of the British history, we note particularly those circumstances which mark the growth of the English constitution.

At this period all the kingdoms of Europe join in the crusades.—A brief account is given of those enterprises.—Moral and political effects of the crusades on the nations of Europe.—Origin of chivalry, and rise of romantic fiction.

Short connected sketch of the state of the European nations after the crusades.—Rise of the house of Austria.—Decline of the feudal government in France.—Establishment of the Swiss republics.—Disorders in the popedom.—Council of Constance.

The history of Britain resumed.—England under Henry III. and Edward I.—The conquest of Wales.—The history of Scotland at this period intimately connected with that of England.—View of the Scottish history from Malcolm Canmore to Robert Bruce.—State of both kingdoms during the reigns of Edward II. and III.—The history of France connected with that of Britain.—France itself won by Henry V.

The state of the east at this period affords the most interesting object of attention.—The progress of the Ottoman arms retarded for a while by the conquests of Tamerlane and of Scanderbeg.—The Turks prosecute their victories under Mahomet the great, to the total extinction of the Constantinopolitan empire.—The constitution and policy of the Turkish empire.

France, in this age, emancipates herself from the feudal servitude; and Spain, from the union of Arragon and Castile, and the fall of the kingdom of the Moors, becomes one monarchy under Ferdinand and Isabella.

The history of Britain is resumed.—Sketch of the history of England down to the reign of Henry VIII.; of Scotland, during the reigns of the five Jameses.—Delineation of the ancient constitution of the Scottish government.

The end of the fifteenth century is a remarkable æra in the history of Europe. Learning and the sciences underwent at that time a very rapid improvement; and, after ages of darkness, shone out at once with surprising lustre.—A connected view is presented of the progress of literature in Europe, from its revival down to this period.—In the same age the advancement of navigation, and the course to India by the Cape of Good Hope, explored by the Portuguese, affect the commerce of all the European kingdoms.

The age of Charles V. unites in one connected view the affairs of Germany, of Spain, of France, of England, and of Italy. The discovery of the new world, the reformation in Germany and England, and the splendour of the fine arts under the pontificate of Leo X., render this period one of the most interesting in the annals of mankind.

The pacification of Europe, by the treaty of Catteau Cambresis, allows us for a while to turn our attention to the state of Asia. A short sketch is given of the modern history of Persia, and the state of the other kingdoms of Asia, in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; the history of India; the manners, laws, arts, and sciences, and religion of the Hindoos; the history of China and Japan; the antiquity of the Chinese empire, its manners, laws, government, and attainments in the arts and sciences.

Returning to Europe, the attention is directed to the state of the continental kingdoms in the age of Philip II. Spain, the Netherlands, France, and England, present a various and animated picture.

England under Elizabeth. The progress of the reformation in Scotland.—The distracted reign of Mary, queen of Scots.—The history of

Britain pursued without interruption down to the revolution, and here closed by a sketch of the progress of the English constitution, and an examination of its nature at this period, when it became fixed and determined.

The history of the southern continental kingdoms is brought down to the end of the reign of Louis XIV.; of the northern, to the conclusion of the reigns of Charles XII. of Sweden, and of Peter the great, czar of Muscovy.

We finish this view of universal history, by a survey of the state of the arts and sciences, and of the progress of literature in Europe, during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

The chronology observed in this View of Universal History is that of archbishop Usher, which is founded on the Hebrew text of the Sacred Writings. A short Table of Chronology is subjoined to these heads, for the ease of the student.

PART FIRST.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

SECTION I.

EARLIEST AUTHENTIC ACCOUNTS OF THE HISTORY OF THE WORLD.

It is a difficult task to delineate the state of mankind in the earliest ages of the world. We want information sufficient to give us positive ideas on the subject; but as man advances in civilization, and in proportion as history becomes useful and important, its certainty increases, and its materials are more abundant.

Various notions have been formed with respect to the population of the antediluvian world and its physical appearance; but as these are rather matters of theory than of fact, they scarcely fall within the province of history; and they are of the less consequence, because we are certain that the state of those antediluvian ages could have had no material influence on the times which succeeded them.

The books of Moses afford the earliest authentic history of the ages immediately following the deluge.

About 150 years after that event, Nimrod (the Belus of profane historians) built Babylon, and Assur built Nineveh, which became the capital of the Assyrian empire.

Ninus the son of Belus, and his queen Semiramis, are said to have raised the empire of Assyria to a higher degree of splendour.

From the death of Ninias the son of Ninus, down to the revolt of the Medes under Sardanapalus, a period of 800 years, there is a chasm in the history of Assyria and Babylon. This is to be supplied only from conjecture.

The earliest periods of the Egyptian history are equally uncertain with those of the Assyrian. Menes is supposed the first king of Egypt; probably the Misraim of the Holy Scriptures, the grandson of Noah, or, as others conjecture, the Oziris of Egypt, the inventor of arts, and the civilizer of a great part of the eastern world.

After Menes or Oziris, Egypt appears to have been divided into four dynasties, Thebes, Thin, Memphis, and Tanis; and the people to have attained a considerable degree of civilization: but a period of barbarism succeeded under the shepherd-kings, subsisting for the space of some centuries, down to the age of Sesostris (1650 A. C.), who united the separate principalities into one kingdom, regulated its policy with admirable skill, and distinguished himself equally by his foreign conquests, and by his domestic administration.

SECTION II.

CONSIDERATIONS ON THE NATURE OF THE FIRST GOVERNMENTS, AND ON THE LAWS, CUSTOMS, ARTS, AND SCIENCES OF THE EARLY AGES.

§ 1. The earliest government is the patriarchal, which subsists in the rudest periods of society.

This has an easy progress to the monarchical.

The first monarchies must have been very weak, and their territory extremely limited. The idea of security precedes that of conquest. In forming our notions of the extent of the first monarchies, we are deceived by the word king, which according to modern ideas, is connected with an extent of territory, and a proportional power. The kings in scripture are no more than the chiefs of tribes. There were five kings in the vale of Sodom. Joshua defeated in his wars thirty-one kings, and Adonizedec threescore and ten.

When families grew into nations, the transition from patriarchal to regal government, was easy; the kingly office, probably passed by descent from father to son, and the sovereign ruled his tribe or nation, as the patriarch his family, by the right of birth.

The first ideas of conquest must have proceeded from a people in the state of shepherds, who, necessarily changing their pastures, would probably make incursions on the appropriated territory of their neighbours. Such were the Arabian or Phœnician invaders, who, under the name of shepherd-kings, conquered Egypt. But kingdoms so founded could have little duration. Laws and good policy, essential to the stability of kingdoms, are the fruit of intellectual refinement, and arise only in a state of society considerably advanced in civilization.

The progress from barbarism to civilization is slow, because every step in the progress is the result of necessity, after the experience of an error, or the strong feeling of a want.

§ 2. *Origin of Laws.* Certain political writers have supposed that in the infancy of society penal laws must have been extremely mild. We presume the contrary to have been rather the case, as the more barbarous the people, the stronger must be the bonds to restrain them: and history confirms the supposition in the ancient laws of the Jews, Egyptians, Greeks, Romans, and Gauls.

Among the earliest laws of all states are those regarding marriage; for the institution of marriage is coeval with the formation of society. The first sovereigns of all states are said to have instituted marriage; and the earliest laws provided encouragements to matrimony.

Among the ancient nations the husband purchased his wife by money, or personal services. Among the Assyrians the marriageable women were put up at auction, and the price obtained for the more beautiful was assigned as a dowry to the more homely.

The laws of succession are next in order to those of marriage. The father had the absolute power in the division of his estate. But primogeniture was understood to confer certain rights.

Laws arise necessarily and imperceptibly from the condition of society; and each particular law may be traced from the state of manners, or the political emergency which gave it birth. Hence we perceive the intimate connexion between history and jurispru-

dence, and the light which they must necessarily throw upon each other. The laws of a country are best interpreted from its history; and its uncertain history is best elucidated by its ancient laws.

§ 3. *Earliest Methods of authenticating Contracts.* Before the invention of writing, contracts, testaments, sales, marriages, and the like, were transacted in public. The Jewish and the Grecian histories furnish examples. Some barbarous nations authenticate their bargains by exchanging symbols or tallies.—The Peruvians accomplished most of the purposes of writing by knotted cords of various colours, termed *quipos*. The Mexicans communicated intelligence to a distance by painting. Other nations used an abridged mode of painting, or hieroglyphics. Before writing the Egyptians used hieroglyphics for transmitting and recording knowledge; after writing, they employed it for veiling or concealing knowledge from the vulgar.

§ 4. *Methods for recording Historical Facts, and publishing Laws.* Poetry and song were the first vehicles of history, and the earliest mode of promulgating laws. The songs of the bards record a great deal of ancient history; and the laws of many of the ancient nations were composed in verse.

Stones, rude and sculptured, *tumuli* and mounds of earth, are the monuments of history among a barbarous people; and columns, triumphal arches, coins, and medals, among a more refined. These likewise illustrate the progress of manners and of the arts.

§ 5. *Religious Institutions.* Among the earliest institutions of all nations, are those which regard religious worship. The sentiment of religion is deeply rooted in the human mind. An uninstructed savage will infer the existence of a God, and his attributes, from the general order and mechanism of nature; and even the temporary irregularities of nature lead to religious veneration of the unknown power which conducts it.

Before conceiving the idea of a Being utterly imperceptible to his senses, a savage would naturally seek that Being in the most striking objects of sense to which he owed his most apparent benefits. The sun, extending his beneficial influence over all nature, was among the earliest objects of worship. The fire presented a symbol of the sun. The other celestial bodies naturally attracted their share of veneration.*

The symbolical mode of writing led to many peculiarities of the idolatrous worship of the ancient nations. Animals, symbolical of the attributes of deity, became gods themselves. The same God, represented by different animals, was supposed to have changed himself into different forms. The gratitude and veneration for men whose lives had been eminently useful, joined to the belief of the soul's immortality, led to the *apotheosis* of heroes. Many excellent reflections on idolatry and polytheism are found in the book called *The Wisdom of Solomon.*

The priesthood was anciently exercised by the chief or monarch;

* It is a theory, supported by many facts, that in the beginning, all religious truth was made known to man by direct revelation. In succeeding ages, intellectual perception was gradually clouded by the sensual and gross nature of man, until his mind could not contemplate Deity, but through the veil of His works. Thus the heavenly were perhaps, at first worshipped as representative of their maker, but gradually became objects of direct adoration, and finally every element was peopled with deities; and mountains, forests, streams, and animals, were consecrated and worshipped.

but as an empire became extensive, the monarch exercised this office by his delegates; and hence an additional source of veneration for the priesthood. The priests were the framers and the administrators of the laws.

§ 6. *Arts and Sciences of the Ancient Nations.* The useful arts are the offspring of necessity; the sciences are the fruit of ease and leisure. The construction of huts, of weapons of war, and of hunting, are the earliest arts. Agriculture is not practised till the tribe becomes stationary, and property is defined and secured.

The sciences arise in a cultivated society, where individuals enjoy that leisure which invites to study and speculation. The priests maintained in that condition by the monarch were the earliest cultivators of science. The Egyptian science was confined to the priests. Astronomy, which is among the earliest of the sciences, owed its origin probably to superstition. Medicine was among the early sciences. All rude nations have a pharmacy of their own, equal in general to their wants. Luxury, creating new and more complex diseases, requires a profounder knowledge of medicine, and of the animal economy.

SECTION III.

OF THE EGYPTIANS.

1. A GREAT portion of the knowledge and attainments of the ancient nations, and by consequence of those of the moderns, is to be traced to Egypt. The Egyptians instructed the Greeks; the Greeks performed the same office to the Romans; and the latter have transmitted much of that knowledge to the world, of which we are in possession at this day.*

2. The antiquity of this empire, though we give no credit to the chronicles of Manetho, must be allowed to be very great. The Mosaic writings represent Egypt, about 430 years after the flood, as a flourishing and well regulated kingdom. The nature of the country itself affords a presumption of the great antiquity of the empire, and its early civilization. From the fertilizing effects of the waters of the Nile, it is probable that agriculture would be more early practised there, than in regions less favoured by nature. The periodical inundations of the Nile are perhaps owing to the vapours of the Mediterranean condensed on the mountains of Ethiopia.

3. The government of Egypt was a hereditary monarchy. The powers of the monarch were limited by constitutional laws; yet in many respects his authority was extremely despotical. The functions of the sovereign were partly civil and partly religious.—The king had the chief regulation of all that regarded the worship of the gods; and the priests, considered as his deputies, filled all the offices of state. They were both the legislators and the civil judges; they imposed and levied the taxes, and regulated weights and measures. The great national tribunal was composed of thirty judges, chosen from the three principal departments of the empire. The administration of justice was defrayed by the sovereign, and, as parties were their own advocates, was no burden upon the people. The penal laws of Egypt were uncommonly severe. Female chas-

* For the supposed origin of Egyptian science, see Part II. Sect. 50.

tity was most rigidly protected. Funeral rites were not conferred till after a scrutiny into the life of the deceased, and by a judicial decree approving his character. The characters even of the sovereigns were subjected to this inquiry.

There was an extraordinary regulation in Egypt regarding the borrowing of money. The borrower gave in pledge the body of his father, and it was deprived of funeral rites if he failed to redeem it.

Population was encouraged by law; and every man was bound to maintain and educate the children born to him of his slaves.

4. The manners of the Egyptians were very early formed. They had a singular attachment to ancient usages; a dislike to innovation; a jealousy and abhorrence of strangers.

5. They preceded most of the ancient nations in the knowledge of the useful arts, and in the cultivation of the sciences. Architecture was early brought to great perfection. Their buildings, the pyramids, obelisks, &c., have, from the mildness of the climate, suffered little injury from time. Pliny describes the contrivance for transporting the obelisks. The whole country abounds with the remains of ancient magnificence. Thebes, in Upper Egypt, was one of the most splendid cities in the world.

The pyramids are supposed by some writers to have been erected about 900 years A. C. They were probably the sepulchral monuments of the sovereigns. The Egyptians believed that death did not separate the soul from the body; and hence their extreme care to preserve the body entire, by embalming, concealing it in caves and catacombs, and guarding it by such stupendous structures. Mr. Bruce supposes the pyramids to be rocks hewn into a pyramidal form, and encrusted, where necessary, with mason-work.*

The remains of art in Egypt, though venerable for their great antiquity, are extremely deficient in beauty and elegance. The Egyptians, were ignorant of the construction of an arch. The remains of painting and sculpture evince but a slender proficiency in those arts.

6. The Egyptians possessed considerable knowledge of geometry, mechanics, and astronomy. They had divided the zodiac into twelve signs; they calculated eclipses; and seem to have had an idea of the motion of the earth.

7. The morality taught by the priests was pure and refined; but it had little influence on the manners of the people.

8. So likewise the theology and secret doctrines of the priests were rational and sublime; but the worship of the people was debased by the most absurd and contemptible superstition.

9. Notwithstanding the early civilization and the great attainments of this people, their national character was extremely low and despicable among the contemporary nations of antiquity. The reason of this is, they were a people who chose to sequester themselves from the rest of mankind; they were not known to other nations by their conquests; they had little connexion with them by commerce; and they had an antipathy to the persons and manners of strangers.

10. There were likewise many circumstances of their own manners which tended to degrade them in the opinion of other nations. All professions were hereditary in Egypt, and the rank of each was scrupulously settled; the objects of the religious worship were different in different parts of the kingdom, a fertile source of division

* Recent travellers have almost demonstrated this supposition.

and controversy; their peculiar superstitions were of the most absurd and debasing nature; and the manners of the people were extremely loose and profligate.

SECTION IV.

OF THE PHŒNICIANS.

1. The Phœnicians were among the most early civilized nations of the east. We are indebted to them for the invention of writing, and for the first attempts at commercial navigation. The fragments of Sanchoniatho are the most ancient monuments of writing after the books of Moses. Sanchoniatho was contemporary with Joshua, about 1440 A. C. and 500 before the cities of Attica were united by Theseus.

2. The Phœnicians, (the Canaanites of scripture), were a commercial people in the days of Abraham. In the time of the Hebrew judges they had begun to colonize. Their first settlements were Cyprus and Rhodes; thence they passed into Greece, Sicily, Sardinia, and Spain; and formed establishments likewise on the western coast of Africa. The Sidonians carried on an extensive commerce at the time of the Trojan war.

SECTION V.

THE HISTORY OF GREECE.

1. Greece being indebted for the first rudiments of civilization to the Egyptians and Phœnicians, its history is properly introduced by an account of those more ancient nations.

2. The early antiquities of this country are disguised by fable; but from the time when it becomes important, it has been treated of by eminent writers.

3. The ancient inhabitants of Greece, the Pelasgi, Hiantes, Leleges, were extremely barbarous; but a dawning of civilization arose under the Titans, a Phœnician or Egyptian colony, who settled in the country about the time of Moses. The Titans gave the Greeks the first ideas of religion, and introduced the worship of their own gods, Saturn, Jupiter, Ceres, &c. Succeeding ages confounded those Titans themselves with the gods, and hence sprung numberless fables.

4. Inachus, the last of the Titans, founded the kingdom of Argos, 1856 A. C.; and Egialtes, one of his sons, the kingdom of Sicyon.

5. In the following century happened the deluge of Ogyges, 1796 A. C. Then followed a period of barbarism for above 200 years.

6. Cecrops, the leader of another colony from Egypt, landed in Attica, 1582 A. C.; and, connecting himself with the last king, succeeded, on his death, to the sovereignty. He built twelve cities, and was eminent, both as a lawgiver and politician.

7. The Grecian history derives some authenticity at this period from the Chronicle of Paros, preserved among the Arundelian marbles at Oxford. The authority of this chronicle has been questioned of late, and many arguments adduced presumptive of its being a forgery; but, on a review of the whole controversy, we judge the arguments for its authenticity to preponderate. It fixes the dates of the

most remarkable events in the history of Greece, from the time of Cecrops down to the age of Alexander the great.

8. Cranaus succeeded Cecrops, in whose time happened two remarkable events recorded in the Chronicle of Paros: the judgment of the areopagus between Mars and Neptune, two princes of Thessaly; and the deluge of Deucalion. The court of areopagus, at Athens, was instituted by Cecrops. The number of its judges varied at different periods, from nine to fifty-one. The deluge of Deucalion, magnified and disguised by the poets, was probably only a partial inundation.

9. Amphyction, the contemporary of Cranaus, if the founder of the amphyctionic council, must have possessed extensive views of policy. This council, from a league of twelve cities, became a representative assembly of the states of Greece, and had the most admirable political effects in uniting the nation, and giving it a common interest.

10. Cadmus, about 1519, A. C., introduced alphabetic writing into Greece, from Phœnicia. The alphabet then had only sixteen letters; and the mode of writing (termed *boustrophedon*), was alternately from right to left and left to right. From this period the Greeks made rapid advances in civilization.

SECTION VI.

REFLECTIONS ON THE FIRST AND RUDEST PERIODS OF THE GRECIAN HISTORY.

1. The country of Greece presents a large, irregular peninsula, intersected by many chains of mountains, separating its different districts, and opposing natural impediments to general intercourse, and therefore to rapid civilization. The extreme barbarism of the Pelasgi, who are said to have been cannibals, and ignorant of the use of fire, has its parallel in modern barbarous nations. There were many circumstances that retarded the progress of the Greeks to refinement. The introduction of a national religion was best fitted to remove those obstacles. Receiving this new system of theology from strangers, and entertaining at first very confused ideas of it, they would naturally blend its doctrines and worship with the notions of religion which they formerly possessed; and hence we observe only partial coincidences of the Grecian with the Egyptian and Phœnician mythologies. It has been a vain and wearisome labour of modern mythological writers, to attempt to trace all the fables of antiquity, and the various systems of pagan theology, up to one common source. The difficulty of this is best shown, by comparing the different and most contradictory solutions of the same fable given by different mythologists; as, for example, lord Bacon and the abbe Banier. Some authors, with much indiscretion, have attempted to deduce all the Pagan mythologies from the holy scriptures. Such researches are unprofitable, sometimes mischievous.

2. Superstition, in the early periods, was a predominant characteristic of the Greeks. To this age, and to this character of the people, we refer the origin of the Grecian oracles, and the institution of the public games in honour of the gods.

The desire of penetrating into futurity, and the superstition common to rude nations, gave rise to the oracles of Delphi, Dodona, &c.

The resort of strangers to these oracles on particular occasions, led to the celebration of a festival, and to public games.

The four solemn games of the Greeks, particularly termed *iepoi*, were the Olympic, the Pythian, the Nemean, and the Isthmian. They consisted principally in contests of skill in all the athletic exercises, and the prizes were chiefly honorary marks of distinction. Archbishop Potter, in his *Archæologia Græca*, fully details their particular nature. These games had excellent political effects, in promoting national union, in diffusing the love of glory, and training the youth to martial exercises. They cherished at once a heroical and superstitious spirit, which led to the formation of extraordinary and hazardous enterprises.

SECTION VII.

EARLY PERIOD OF THE GRECIAN HISTORY. THE ARGONAUTIC EXPEDITION. WARS OF THEBES AND OF TROY.

1. The history of Greece, for a period of 300 years preceding the Trojan war, is intermixed with fables; but contains, at the same time, many facts entitled to credit, as authentic. Erectheus, or Erichthonius, either a Greek who had visited Egypt, or the leader of a new Egyptian colony, cultivated the plains of Eleusis, and instituted the Eleusinian mysteries, in imitation of the Egyptian games of Isis. These mysteries were of a religious and moral nature, conveying the doctrines of the unity of God, the immortality of the soul, and a future state of reward and punishment. Cicero speaks of them with high encomium. But the ceremonies connected with them seem to be childish and ridiculous.

2. Theseus laid the foundation of the grandeur of Attica, by uniting its twelve cities, and giving them a common constitution, 1257 A. C.

3. The first great enterprise of the Greeks was the Argonautic expedition, 1263 A. C. (Usher), and 937 A. C. (sir I. Newton). This is supposed to have been both a military and a mercantile adventure, and was singularly bold for the times in which it was undertaken. The object was, to open the commerce of the Euxine sea, and to secure some establishments on its coasts. The astronomer Chiron directed the plan of the voyage, and formed, for the use of the mariners, a scheme of the constellations, fixing with accuracy the solstitial and equinoctial points. Sir Isaac Newton has founded his emendation of the ancient chronology on a calculation of the regular procession of the equinoxes from this period to the present, as well as on an estimate of the medium length of human generations.

4. The state of the military art at this time in Greece may be estimated from an account of the sieges of Thebes and Troy.

In these enterprises the arts of attack and defence were very rude and imperfect. The siege was entirely of the nature of blockade, and therefore necessarily of long duration. A dispute for the divided sovereignty of Thebes between the brothers Eteocles and Polynices, gave rise to the war, which was terminated by single combat, in which both were killed.

5. The sons of the commanders slain in this war renewed the quarrel of their fathers, and occasioned the war of the *Epigonoi*, a subject on which Homer is said to have written a poem, now lost, equal to the Iliad and Odyssey.

6. The detail of the war of Troy rests chiefly on the authority of Homer, and ought not, in spite of modern scepticism, to be refused, in its principal facts, the credit of a true history. After a blockade of ten years Troy was taken, either by storm or surprise, 1184 A. C., and being set on fire in the night, was burnt to the ground; not a vestige of its ruins existing at the present day. The empire fell from that moment. The Greeks settled a colony near the spot, and the rest of the kingdom was occupied by the Lydians.

7. Military expeditions at this time were carried on only in the spring and summer. In a tedious siege the winter was a season of armistice. The science of military tactics was then utterly unknown, every battle being a multitude of single combats. The soldier had no pay but his share of the booty, divided by the chiefs. The weapons of war were the sword, the bow, the javelin, the club, the hatchet, and the sling. A helmet of brass, an enormous shield, a cuirass, and buskins, were the weapons of defence.

SECTION VIII.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE GREEK COLONIES.

1. About eighty years after the taking of Troy, began the war of the Heraclidæ. Hercules, the son of Amphitryon, sovereign of Mycenæ, was banished from his country with all his family, while the crown was possessed by a usurper. His descendants, after the period of a century, returned to Peloponnesus, and subduing all their enemies, took possession of the states of Mycenæ, Argos, and Lacedæmon.

2. A long period of civil war and bloodshed succeeded, and Greece, divided among a number of petty tyrants, suffered equally the miseries of oppression and anarchy.

Codrus, king of Athens, showed a singular example of patriotism, in devoting himself to death for his country; yet the Athenians, weary of monarchy, determined to make the experiment of a popular constitution. Medon, the son of Codrus, was elected chief magistrate, with the title of archon. This is the commencement of the Athenian republic, about 1068 A. C.

3. It was at this time that the Greeks began to colonize. The oppression which they suffered at home forced many of them to abandon their country, and seek refuge in other lands. A large body of Æolians from Peloponnesus founded twelve cities in the Lesser Asia, of which Smyrna was the most considerable. A troop of Ionian exiles built Ephesus, Colophon, Clazomene, and other towns; giving to their new settlements the name of their native country, Ionia. The Dorians sent off colonies to Italy and Sicily, founding, in the former, Tarentum and Locri, and in the latter, Syracuse and Arigentum. The mother country considered its colonies as emancipated children. These speedily attained to eminence and splendour, rivalling and surpassing their parent states: and the example of their prosperity, which was attributed to the freedom of their governments, incited the states of Greece, oppressed by a number of petty despots, to put an end to the regal government, and try the experiment of a popular constitution. Athens and Thebes gave the first examples, which were soon followed by all the rest.

4. These infant republics demanded new laws; and it was neces-

sary that some enlightened citizen should arise, who had discernment to perceive what system of legislation was most adapted to the character of his native state; who had abilities to compile such a system, and sufficient authority with his countrymen to recommend and enforce it. Such men were the Spartan Lycurgus and the Athenian Solon.

SECTION IX.

THE REPUBLIC OF SPARTA.

1. The origin of this political system has given rise to much ingenious disquisition among the moderns, and affords a remarkable instance of the passion for systematizing. It is a prevailing propensity with modern philosophers to reduce every thing to general principles. Man, say they, is always the same animal, and, when placed in similar situations, will always exhibit a similar appearance. His manners, his improvements, the government and laws under which he lives, arise necessarily from the situation in which we find him; and all is the result of a few general laws of nature, which operate universally on the human species. But in the ardour of this passion for generalizing, these philosophers often forget, that it is the knowledge of facts which can alone lead to the discovery of general laws: a knowledge not limited to the history of a single age or nation, but extended to that of the whole species in every age and climate. Antecedently to such knowledge, all historical system is mere romance.

2. Of this nature is a late theory of the constitution of Sparta, first started by Mr. Browne, in his Essay on Civil Liberty; and from him adopted by later writers. It thus accounts for the origin of the Spartan constitution.* "The army of the Heraclidæ, when they came to recover the dominion of their ancestors, was composed of Dorians from Thessaly, the most barbarous of all the Greek tribes. The Achæans, the ancient inhabitants of Laconia, were compelled to seek new habitations, while the barbarians of Thessaly took possession of their country. Of all the nations which are the subject of historical record, this people bore the nearest resemblance to the rude Americans. An American tribe where a chief presides, where the council of the aged deliberate, and the assembly of the people gives their voice, is on the eve of such a political establishment as the Spartan constitution." The Dorians or Thessalians settled in Lacedæmon, manifested, it is said, the same manners with all other nations in a barbarous state. Lycurgus did no more than arrest them in that state, by forming their usages into laws. He checked them at once in the first stage of their improvement. "He put forth a bold hand to that spring which is in society, and stopt its motion."

3. This theory, however ingenious, is confuted by facts. All ancient authors agree, that Lycurgus operated a total change on the Spartan manners, and on the constitution of his country; while the moderns have discovered that he made no change on either. The most striking features of the manners and constitution of Sparta had not the smallest resemblance to those of any rude nations with which we are acquainted. The communion of slaves and of many other species of property, the right of the state in the children of all the

* Logan's Philosophy of History, &c.

citizens, their common education, the public tables, the equal division of lands, the oath of government between the kings and people, have no parallel in the history of any barbarous nation.

4. The real history of Sparta and its constitution is therefore not to be found in modern theory, but in the writings of the Greek historians, and these are our sole authorities worthy of credit.

After the return of the Heraclidæ, Sparta was divided between the two sons of Aristodemus, Eurysthenes, and Procles, who jointly reigned; and this double monarchy, transmitted to the descendants of each, continued in the separate branches for near 900 years. A radical principle of disunion, and consequent anarchy, made the want of constitutional laws be severely felt. Lycurgus, brother of Polydectes, one of the kings of Sparta, a man distinguished alike by his abilities and virtues, was invested, by the concurring voice of the sovereigns and people, with the important duty of reforming and new-modelling the constitution of his country, 884 A. C.

5. Lycurgus instituted a senate, elective, of twenty-eight members; whose office was to preserve a just balance between the power of the kings and that of the people. Nothing could come before the assembly of the people which had not received the previous consent of the senate; and, on the other hand, no judgment of the senate was effectual without the sanction of the people. The kings presided in the senate; they were the generals of the republic: but they could plan no enterprise without the consent of a council of the citizens.

6. Lycurgus bent his attention most particularly to the regulation of manners; and one great principle pervaded his whole system: Luxury is the bane of society.

He divided the territory of the republic into 39,000 equal portions, among the whole of its free citizens.

He substituted iron money for gold and silver, prohibited the practice of commerce, abolished all useless arts, and allowed even those necessary to life to be practised only by the slaves.

The whole citizens made their principal repast at the public tables. The meals were coarse and parsimonious; the conversation was fitted to improve the youth in virtue, and cultivate the patriotic spirit.

The Spartan education rejected all embellishments of the understanding. It nourished only the severer virtues. It taught the duties of religion, obedience to the laws, respect for parents, reverence for old age, inflexible honour, undaunted courage, contempt of danger and of death; above all, the love of glory and of their country.

7. But the general excellence of the institutions of Lycurgus was impaired by many blemishes. The manners of the Lacedæmonian women were shamefully loose. They frequented the baths, and fought naked in the palæstra promiscuously with the men. Theft was a part of Spartan education. The youth were taught to subdue the feelings of humanity; the slaves were treated with the most barbarous rigour, and often massacred for sport. The institutions of Lycurgus had no other end than to form a nation of soldiers.

8. A faulty part of the constitution of Sparta was the office of the ephori: magistrates elected by the people, whose power, though in some respects subordinate, was in others paramount to that of the kings and senate.

SECTION X.

THE REPUBLIC OF ATHENS.

1. On the abolition of the regal office at Athens, the change of the constitution was more nominal than real. The archonship was, during three centuries, a perpetual and hereditary magistracy. In 754 A. C. this office became decennial. In 648 the archons were annually elected, and were nine in number, with equal authority. Under all these changes the state was convulsed, and the condition of the people miserable.

2. Draco, elevated to the archonship 624 A. C., projected a reform in the constitution of his country, and thought to repress disorders by the extreme severity of penal laws. But his talents were unequal to the task he had undertaken.

3. Solon, an illustrious Athenian, of the race of Codrus, attained the dignity of archon 594 A. C., and was entrusted with the care of framing for his country a new form of government, and a new system of laws. He possessed extensive knowledge, but wanted that intrepidity of mind which is necessary to the character of a great statesman. His disposition was mild and temporizing; and, without attempting to reform the manners of his countrymen, he accommodated his system to their prevailing habits and passions.

4. The people claimed the sovereign power, and they received it: the rich demanded offices and dignities: the system of Solon accommodated them to the utmost of their wishes. He divided the citizens into four classes, according to the measure of their wealth. To the three first, the richer citizens, belonged all the offices of the commonwealth. The fourth, the poorer class, more numerous than all the other three, had an equal right of suffrage with them in the public assembly, where all laws were framed, and measures of state decreed. Consequently the weight of the latter decided every question.

5. To regulate in some degree the proceedings of those assemblies, and to ascertain the weight of the popular interest, Solon instituted a senate of 400 members (afterwards enlarged to 500 and 600), with whom it was necessary that every measure should originate, before it became the subject of discussion in the assembly of the people.

6. To the court of areopagus he committed the guardianship of the laws, and the power of enforcing them; with the supreme administration of justice. To this tribunal belonged likewise the custody of the treasures of the state, the care of religion, and a tutorial power over all the youth of the republic. The number of its judges was various at different periods, and the most immaculate purity of character was essential to that high office.

7. The authority of the senate and areopagus imposed some check on the popular assemblies; but as these possessed the ultimate right of decision, it was always in the power of ambitious demagogues to sway them to the worst of purposes. Continual factions divided the people, and corruption pervaded every department of the state. The public measures, the result of the interested schemes of individuals, were often equally absurd as they were profligate. Athens often saw her best patriots, the wisest and most virtuous of her citizens, shamefully sacrificed to the most depraved and most abandoned.

8. The particular laws of the Athenian state are more deserving of encomium than its form of government. The laws relating to debtors were mild and equitable, as were those which regulated the treatment of slaves. But the vassalage of women, or their absolute subjection to the control of their nearest relations, approached too near to a state of servitude. The proposer of a law found on experience impolitic was liable to punishment; an enactment apparently rigorous, but probably necessary in a popular government.

9. One most iniquitous and absurd peculiarity of the Athenian, and some other governments of Greece, was the practice of the *ostracism*, a ballot of all the citizens, in which each wrote down the name of the person in his opinion most obnoxious to censure; and he who was thus marked out by the greatest number of voices, though unimpeached of any crime, was banished for ten years from his country. This barbarous and disgraceful institution, ever capable of the grossest abuse, and generally subservient to the worst of purposes, has stained the character of Athens with many flagrant instances of public ingratitude.

10. The manners of the Athenians formed the most striking contrast to those of the Lacedæmonians. At Athens the arts were in the highest esteem. The Lacedæmonians despised the arts, and all who cultivated them. At Athens peace was the natural state of the republic, and the refined enjoyment of life the aim of all its subjects. Sparta was entirely a military establishment; and her subjects, when unengaged in war, were totally unoccupied. Luxury was the character of the Athenian, as frugality of the Spartan. They were equally jealous of their liberty, and equally brave in war. The courage of the Spartans sprang from constitutional ferocity, that of the Athenian from the principle of honour.

11. The Spartan government had acquired solidity, while all the rest of Greece was torn by domestic dissensions. Athens, a prey to faction and civil disorder, surrendered her liberties to Pisistratus, 550 A. C.; who, after various turns of fortune, established himself firmly in the sovereignty, exercised a splendid and munificent dominion, completely gained the affections of the people, and transmitted a peaceable crown to his sons Hippias and Hipparchus.

12. Hermodias and Aristogiton undertook to restore the democracy; and succeeded in the attempt. Hipparchus was put to death; and Hippias, dethroned, solicited a foreign aid to replace him in the sovereignty. Darius, the son of Hystaspes, meditated at this time the conquest of Greece. Hippias took advantage of the views of an enemy against his native country, and Greece was now involved in a war with Persia.

SECTION XI.

OF THE STATE OF THE PERSIAN EMPIRE, AND ITS HISTORY DOWN TO THE WAR WITH GREECE.

1. The first empire of the Assyrians ended under Sardanapalus, and three monarchies arose upon its ruins, Nineveh, Babylon, and the kingdom of the Medes.

2. The history of Babylon and of Nineveh is very imperfectly known. The Medes, hitherto independent tribes, were united under a monarchy by Dejoces. His son Phraortes conquered Persia, but was

himself vanquished by Nabuchodonosor I., king of Assyria, and put to death. Nabuchodonosor II. led the Jews into captivity, took Jerusalem and Tyre, and subdued Egypt.

3. The history of Cyrus is involved in great uncertainty; nor is it possible to reconcile or apply to one man the different accounts given of him by Herodotus, Ctesias, and Xenophon. Succeeding his father Cambyses in the throne of Persia, and his uncle Cyaxares in the sovereignty of the Medes, he united these empires, vanquished the Babylonians and Lydians, subjected the greatest part of the Lesser Asia, and made himself master of Syria and Arabia.

4. He was succeeded by his son Cambyses, distinguished only as a tyrant and a madman.

5. After the death of Cambyses, Darius, the son of Hystaspes, was elected sovereign of Persia, a prince of great enterprise and ambition. Unfortunate in a rash expedition against the Scythians, he projected and achieved the conquest of India. Inflated with success, he now meditated an invasion of Greece, and cordially entered into the views of Hippias, who sought by his means to regain the sovereignty of Athens.

6. *Government, Manners, Laws, &c. of the Ancient Persians.* The government of Persia was an absolute monarchy; the will of the sovereign being subject to no control, and his person revered as sacred: yet the education bestowed by those monarchs on their children was calculated to inspire every valuable quality of a sovereign.

The ancient Persians in general bestowed the utmost attention on the education of youth. Children at the age of five were committed to the care of the magi, for the improvement of their mind and morals. They were trained at the same time to every manly exercise. The sacred books of the *Zendavesta* promised to every worthy parent the imputed merit and reward of all the good actions of his children.

7. Luxurious as they were in after times, the early Persians were distinguished for their temperance, bravery, and virtuous simplicity of manners. They were all trained to the use of arms, and displayed great intrepidity in war. The custom of the women following their armies to the field, erroneously attributed to effeminacy, was a remnant of barbarous manners.

8. The kingdom of Persia was divided into several provinces, each under a governor or satrap, who was accountable to the sovereign for the whole of his conduct. The prince, at stated times, visited his provinces in person, correcting all abuses, easing the burdens of the oppressed, and encouraging agriculture and the practice of the useful arts. The laws of Persia were mild and equitable, and the utmost purity was observed in the administration of justice.

9. The religion of the ancient Persians is of great antiquity. It is conjectured that there were two Zoroasters; the first, the founder of this ancient religion, and of whom are recorded miracles and prophecies; the second, a reformer of that religion, contemporary with Darius the son of Hystaspes. The *Zendavesta*, or sacred book, compiled by the former, was improved and purified by the latter. It has been lately translated into French by M. Anquetil, and appears to contain, amidst a mass of absurdity, some sublime truths, and excellent precepts of morality. The theology of the Zendavesta is founded on the doctrine of two opposite principles, a good and an evil, Ormusd and Ahriman, eternal beings, who divide between them the government of the universe, and whose warfare must endure till

the end of 12,000 years, when the good will finally prevail over the evil. A separation will ensue of the votaries of each: the just shall be admitted to the immediate enjoyment of Paradise; the wicked, after a limited purification by fire, shall ultimately be allowed to partake in the blessings of eternity. Ormusd is to be adored through the medium of his greatest works, the sun, moon, and stars. The fire, the symbol of the sun, the air, the earth, the water, have their subordinate worship.

The morality of the *Zendavesta* is best known from its abridgment, the *Sadder*, complied about three centuries ago by the modern Guebres. It inculcates a chastened species of epicurism; allowing a free indulgence of the passions, while consistent with the welfare of society. It prohibits equally intemperance and ascetic mortification. It recommends, as precepts of religion, the cultivation of the earth, the planting of fruit-trees, the destruction of noxious animals, the bringing water to a barren land.

10. Such were the ancient Persians. But their character had undergone a great change before the period of the war with Greece. At this time they were a degenerate and corrupted people. Athens had recently thrown off the yoke of the Pisistratidæ, and highly valued her new liberty. Sparta, in the ardour of patriotism, forgot all jealousy of her rival state, and cordially united in the defence of their common country. The Persians, in this contest, had no other advantage than that of numbers, an unequal match for superior heroism and military skill.

SECTION XII.

THE WAR BETWEEN GREECE AND PERSIA.

1. The ambition of Darius, the son of Hystaspes, heightened by the passion of revenge, gave rise to the project of that monarch for the invasion of Greece. The Athenians had aided the people of Ionia in an attempt to throw off the yoke of Persia, and burnt and ravaged Sardis, the capital of Lydia. Darius speedily reduced the Ionians to submission, and then turned his arms against the Greeks, their allies; the exile Hippias eagerly prompting the expedition.

2. After an insolent demand of submission, which the Greeks scornfully refused, Darius began a hostile attack both by sea and land. The first Persian fleet was wrecked in doubling the promontory of Athos; a second, of 600 sail, ravaged the Grecian islands; while an immense army landing in Eubœa, poured down with impetuosity on Attica. The Athenians met them on the plain of Marathon, and, headed by Miltiades, defeated them with prodigious slaughter, 490 A. C. The loss of the Persians in this battle was 6,300, and that of the Athenians 190.

3. The merit of Miltiades, signally displayed in this great battle, was repaid by his country with the most shocking ingratitude. Accused of treason for an unsuccessful attack on the isle of Paros, his sentence of death was commuted into a fine of fifty talents; which being unable to pay he was thrown into prison, and there died of his wounds.

4. The glory of ungrateful Athens was yet nobly sustained in the Persian war by Themistocles and Aristides. Darius dying was succeeded by his son Xerxes, the heir of his father's ambition, but not of

his abilities. He armed, as is said, five millions of men, for the conquest of Greece; 1,200 ships of war, and 3,000 ships of burden. Landing in Thessaly he proceeded, by rapid marches, to Thermopylæ, a narrow defile on the *Sinus Maliacus*. The Athenians and Spartans, aided only by the Thespians, Platæans, and Eginetes, determined to withstand the invader. Leonidas, king of Sparta, was chosen to defend this important pass with 6,000 men. Xerxes, after a weak attempt to corrupt him, imperiously summoned him to lay down his arms. *Let him come*, said Leonidas, *and take them*. For two days the Persians in vain strove to force their way, and were repeatedly repulsed with great slaughter. An unguarded track being at length discovered, the defence of the pass became a fruitless attempt on the part of the Greeks. Leonidas, foreseeing certain destruction, commanded all to retire but 300 of his countrymen. His motive was to give the Persians a just idea of the spirit of that foe whom they had to encounter. He, with his brave Spartans, were all cut off to a man, 480 A. C. A monument, erected on the spot, bore this noble inscription, written by Simonides: *O stranger! tell it at Lacedæmon, that we died here in obedience to her laws.*

5. The Persians poured down upon Attica. The inhabitants of Athens, after conveying their women and children to the islands for security, betook themselves to their fleet, abandoning the city, which the Persians pillaged and burnt. The fleet of the Greeks, consisting of 380 sail, was attacked in the straits of Salamis by that of the Persians, amounting to 1,200 ships. Xerxes himself beheld from an eminence on the coast the total discomfiture of his squadron. He then fled with precipitation across the Hellespont. A second overthrow awaited his army by land: for Mardonius, at the head of 300,000 Persians, was totally defeated at Platæa by the combined army of the Athenians and Lacedæmonians, 479 A. C. On the same day the Greeks engaged and destroyed the remains of the Persian fleet at Mycale. From that day the ambitious schemes of Xerxes were at an end; and his inglorious life was soon after terminated by assassination. He was succeeded in the throne of Persia by his son Artaxerxes Longimanus, 464 A. C.

6. At this time the national character of the Greeks was at its highest elevation. The common danger had annihilated all partial jealousies between the states, and given them union as a nation. But with the cessation of danger those jealousies recommended. Sparta meanly opposed the rebuilding of deserted Athens. Athens, rising again into splendour, saw with pleasure the depopulation of Sparta by an earthquake, and hesitated to give her aid in that juncture of calamity against a rebellion of her slaves.

7. Cimon, the son of Miltiades, after expelling the Persians from Thrace, attacked and destroyed their fleet on the coast of Pamphylia, and, landing his troops, gained a signal victory over their army the same day. Supplanted in the public favour by the arts of his rival Pericles, he suffered a temporary exile, to return only with higher popularity, and to signalize himself still more in the service of his ungrateful country. He attacked and totally destroyed the Persian fleet of 300 sail, and, landing in Cilicia, completed his triumph, by defeating 300,000 Persians under Megabyzes, 460 A. C. Artaxerxes now had the prudence to sue for peace, which was granted by the Greeks, on terms most honourable to the nation. They stipulated for the freedom of all the Grecian cities of Asia, and that the fleets of Persia should not approach their coasts from the Euxine to the ex-

treme boundary of Pamphylia. The last fifty years were the period of the highest glory of the Greeks; and they owed their prosperity entirely to their union. The peace with Persia, dissolving that connexion, brought back the jealousies between the predominant states, the intestine disorders of each, and the national weakness.

8. The martial and the patriotic spirit began visibly to decline in Athens. An acquaintance with Asia, and an importation of her wealth, introduced a relish for Asiatic manners and luxuries. With the Athenians, however, this luxurious spirit was under the guidance of taste and genius. It led to the cultivation of the finer arts; and the age of Pericles, though the national glory was in its wane, is the æra of the highest internal splendour and magnificence of Greece.

SECTION XIII.

AGE OF PERICLES.

1. Republics, equally with monarchies, are generally regulated by a single will: only, in the former there is a more frequent change of masters. Pericles ruled Athens with little less than arbitrary sway; and Athens pretended at this time to the command of Greece. She held the allied states in the most absolute subjection, and lavished their subsidies, bestowed for the national defence, in magnificent buildings, games, and festivals, for her own citizens. The tributary states loudly complained, but durst not call this domineering republic to account; and the war of Peloponnesus, dividing the nation into two great parties, bound the less cities to the strictest subordination on the predominant powers.

2. The state of Corinth had been included in the last treaty between Athens and Sparta. The Corinthians waging war with the people of Corcyra, an ancient colony of their own, both parties solicited the aid of Athens, which took part with the latter: a measure which the Corinthians complained of, not only as an infraction of the treaty with Sparta, but as a breach of a general rule of the national policy, that no foreign power should interfere in the disputes between a colony and its parent state. War was proclaimed on this ground between Athens and Lacedæmon, each supported by its respective allies. The detail of the war, which continued for twenty-eight years, with various and alternate success, is to be found in Thucydides. Pericles died before its termination; a splendid ornament of his country, but a corrupter of its manners. Alcibiades ran a similar career, with equal talents, equal ambition, and still less purity of moral principle. In the interval of a truce with Sparta he inconsiderately projected the conquest of Sicily; and, failing in the attempt, was, on his return to Athens, condemned to death for treason. He hesitated not to wreak his vengeance against his country, by selling his services, first to Sparta, and afterwards to Persia. Finally, he purchased his peace with his country, by betraying the power which protected him, and returned to Athens the idol of a populace as versatile as worthless.

3. A fatal defeat of the Athenian fleet at Ægos Potamos, by Lysander, reduced Athens to the last extremity; and the Lacedæmonians blockaded the city by land and sea. The war was ended by the absolute submission of the Athenians, who agreed to demolish their port, to limit their fleet to twelve ships, and undertake for the future

no military enterprise, but under command of the Lacedæmonians, 405 A. C.

4. To the same Lysander, who terminated the Peloponnesian war so gloriously for Lacedæmon, history ascribes the first great breach of the constitution of his country, by the introduction of gold into that republic. Lysander, after the reduction of Athens, abolished the popular government in that state, and substituted in its place thirty tyrants, whose power was absolute. The most eminent of the citizens fled from their country; but a band of patriots, headed by Thrasybulus, attacked, vanquished, and expelled the usurpers, and once more re-established the democracy.

5. One event, which happened at this time, reflected more disgrace on the Athenian name than their national humiliation: this was the persecution and death of Socrates, a philosopher who was himself the pattern of every virtue which he taught. The sophists, whose futile logic he derided and exposed, represented him as an enemy to the religion of his country, because, without regard to the popular superstitions, he led the mind to the knowledge of a Supreme Being, the creator and ruler of the universe, and to the belief of a future state of retribution. He made his defence with the manly fortitude of conscious innocence; but in vain: his judges were his personal enemies, and he was condemned to die by poison, 397 A. C. (See Section XXIII, § 5.)

6. On the death of Darius Nothus, his eldest son Artaxerxes Mnemon succeeded to the empire of Persia. His younger brother Cyrus formed the project of dethroning him, and with the aid of 13,000 Greeks engaged him near Babylon, but was defeated and slain; a just reward of his most culpable enterprise. The remainder of the Grecian army, to the amount of 10,000, under the command of Xenophon, made a most amazing retreat, traversing a hostile country of 1,600 miles in extent, from Babylon to the banks of the Euxine. Xenophon has beautifully written the history of this expedition; but has painted the character of Cyrus in too flattering colours, and without the smallest censure of his criminal ambition.

7. The Greek cities of Asia had taken part with Cyrus. Sparta was engaged to defend her countrymen, and consequently was involved in a war with Persia. Had Athens added her strength, the Greeks might have once more defied the power of Asia; but jealousy kept the states divided, and even hostile to each other; and the gold of Artaxerxes excited a general league in Greece against Lacedæmon. Agesilaus, king of Sparta, sustained for a time the honour of his country, and won some important battles in Asia; but others were lost in Greece; and a naval defeat near Cnidos utterly destroyed the Lacedæmonian fleet. Finally, to escape total destruction, the Spartans sued for peace, and obtained it by the sacrifice to Persia of all the Asiatic colonies, 387 A. C. Artaxerxes further demanded, and obtained for his allies the Athenians, the islands of Scyros, Lemnos, and Imbros: a disgraceful treaty; a mortifying picture of the humiliation of the Greeks.

SECTION XIV.

THE REPUBLIC OF THEBES.

1. While Athens and Sparta were thus visibly tending to decline, the Theban republic emerged from obscurity, and rose for a time to a degree of splendour eclipsing all its contemporary states. The republic was divided by faction, one party supporting its ancient democracy, and the other aiming at the establishment of an oligarchy. The latter courted the aid of the Spartans, who embraced that occasion to take possession of the citadel. Four hundred of the exiled Thebans fled for protection to Athens. Among these was Pelopidas, who planned and accomplished the deliverance of his country. Disguising himself and twelve of his friends as peasants, he entered Thebes in the evening, and joining a patriotic party of the citizens, they surprised the heads of the usurpation amid the tumult of a feast, and put them all to death. Epaminondas, the friend of Pelopidas, shared with him in the glory of this enterprise; and attacking, with the aid of 5,000 Athenians, the Lacedæmonian garrison, drove them entirely out of the Theban territory.

2. A war necessarily ensued between Thebes and Sparta, in which the former had the aid of Athens. This, however, was but for a season. Thebes singly opposed the power of Sparta, and the league of Greece: but Epaminondas and Pelopidas were her generals. The latter, amidst a career of glory, perished in an expedition against the tyrant of Pheræa. Epaminondas, triumphant at Leuctra and Mantinea, fell in that last engagement, and with him expired the glory of his country, 363 A. C. Athens and Sparta were humbled at the battle of Mantinea. Thebes was victorious; but she was undone by the death of Epaminondas. All parties were tired of the war; and Artaxerxes, more powerful among those infatuated states than in his own dominions, dictated the terms of the treaty. It was stipulated that each power should retain what it possessed; and that the less states, now free from the yoke of the greater, should remain so.

SECTION XV.

PHILIP OF MACEDON.

1. Greece was now in the most abject situation. The spirit of patriotism appeared utterly extinct, and military glory at an end. Athens seemed to have lost all ambition; the pleasures of luxury had entirely supplanted heroic virtue; poets, musicians, sculptors, and comedians, were now the only great men of Attica. Sparta, no less changed from the simplicity of its ancient manners, and its power abridged by the new independency of the states of Peloponnesus, was in no capacity to attempt a recovery of its former greatness. In this situation Philip of Macedon formed the ambitious project of bringing under his dominion the whole of Greece.

2. He had mounted the throne of Macedon by popular choice, in violation of the natural right of the nearer heirs to the crown; and he secured his power by the success of his arms against the Illyrians, Pæonians, and Athenians, who espoused the interest of his competitors. Uniting to great military talents the most consummate artifice and ad-

dress, he had his pensionaries in all the states of Greece, who directed to his advantage every public measure. The miserable policy of these states, embroiled in perpetual quarrels, co-operated with his designs. A sacrilegious attempt of the Phocians to plunder the temple of Delphos excited the *sacred war*, in which almost all the republics took a part. Philip's aid being courted by the Thebans and Thessalians, he began hostilities by invading Phocis, the key to the territory of Attica. Æschines, the orator, bribed to his interest, attempted to quiet the alarms of the Athenians, by ascribing to Philip a design only of punishing sacrilege, and vindicating the cause of Apollo. Demosthenes, with true patriotism, exposed the artful designs of the invader, and with the most animated eloquence roused his countrymen to a vigorous effort for the preservation of their natural liberties. But the event was unsuccessful. The battle of Cheronæa, fought 337 A. C., decided the fate of Greece, and subjected all the states to the dominion of the king of Macedon. But it was not his policy to treat them as a conquered people. They retained their separate and independent governments, while he controlled and directed all the national measures. Convoking a general council of the states, Philip was appointed commander in chief of the forces of the nation; and he laid before them his project for the conquest of Persia, appointing each republic to furnish its proportional subsidies. On the eve of this great enterprise Philip was assassinated by Pausanias, a captain of his guards, in revenge of a private injury, 336 A. C. The Athenians, on the death of Philip, meanly expressed the most tumultuous joy, in the hope of a recovery of their liberty; but this visionary prospect was never realized. The spirit of the nation was gone; and in their subsequent revolutions they only changed their masters.

SECTION XVI.

ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

1. Alexander, the son of Philip, succeeded at the age of twenty to the throne of Macedon, and, after a few successful battles against the revolted states, to the command of Greece. Assembling the deputies of the nation at Corinth, he communicated to them his resolution of prosecuting the designs of his father for the conquest of Persia.

2. With an army of 30,000 foot, and 5,000 horse, the sum of 70 talents, and provisions only for a single month, he crossed the Hellespont, and in traversing Phrygia visited the tomb of Achilles. Darius Codomanus, resolved to crush at once this inconsiderate youth, met him on the banks of the Granicus, with 100,000 foot and 10,000 horse. The Greeks swam the river, their king leading the van, and, attacking the astonished Persians, left 20,000 dead upon the field, and put to flight their whole army. Drawing from his first success a presage of continued victory, Alexander now sent home his fleet, leaving to his army the sole alternative, that they must subdue Asia or perish. Prosecuting their course for some time without resistance, the Greeks were attacked by the Persians in a narrow valley of Cilicia, near the town of Issus. The Persian host amounted to 400,000; but their situation was such that only a small part could come into action, and they were defeated with prodigious slaughter. The loss of the Persians in this battle was 110,000; that of the Greeks (according to Q. Curtius) only 450.

3. The history of Alexander by Quintus Curtius, though a most elegant composition, is extremely suspicious on the score of authentic information. Arrian is the best authority.

4. The generosity of Alexander was displayed after the battle of Issus, in his attention to his noble prisoners, the mother, the wife, and family of Darius. To the credit of Alexander it must be owned that humanity, however overpowered, and at times extinguished by his passions, certainly formed a part of his natural character.

5. The consequence of the battle of Issus was the submission of all Syria. Damascus, where Darius had deposited his chief treasures, was betrayed and given up by its governor. The Phœnicians were pleased to see themselves thus avenged for the oppression which they had suffered under the yoke of Persia.

6. Alexander had hitherto borne his good fortune with moderation. *Felix*, says Curtius, *si hac continentia ad ultimum vitæ perseverare potuisset; sed nondum Fortuna se animo ejus infuderat.** He directed his course towards Tyre, and desired admittance to perform a sacrifice to Hercules. The Tyrians shut their gates, and maintained for seven months a noble defence. The city was at length taken by storm, and the victor glutted his revenge by the inhuman massacre of 8,000 of the inhabitants. The fate of Gaza, gloriously defended by Betis, was equally deplorable to its citizens, and more disgraceful to the conqueror. Ten thousand of the former were sold into slavery, and its brave defender dragged at the wheels of the victor's chariot: *Gloriante rege, Achillem, a quo genus ipse deduceret, imitatum se esse, pœna in hostem capienda.*† Curtius.

7. The taking of Gaza opened Egypt to Alexander, and the whole country submitted without opposition. The course he now pursued demonstrated that in his conquests he followed no determined plan. Amidst the most incredible fatigues, he led his army through the deserts of Lybia, to visit the temple of his father, *Jupiter Ammon*. On his return he built Alexandria, at the mouth of the Nile, afterwards the capital of the Lower Egypt, and one of the most flourishing cities in the world. Twenty other cities of the same name were reared by him in the course of his conquests. It is such works as these that justly entitle the Macedonian to the epithet of Great. By rearing in the midst of deserts those nurseries of population and of industry, he repaired the waste and havoc of his conquests. Except for those monuments of his glory, he would have merited no other epithet than that assigned him by the brahmins of India, *The Mighty Murderer*.

8. Returning from Egypt, Alexander traversed Assyria, and was met at Arbela by Darius, at the head of 700,000 men. The Persian had proffered peace, consenting to yield the whole country from the Euphrates to the Hellespont, to give Alexander his daughter in marriage, and the immense sum of 10,000 talents. But these terms were haughtily rejected, and peace offered only upon the unqualified submission of his enemy. The Persians were defeated at Arbela, with the loss of 300,000 men. Darius fled from province to province. At length betrayed by Bessus, one of his own satraps, he was cruelly murdered; and the Persian empire, which had subsisted for 206 years from the time of Cyrus the great, submitted to the conqueror, 330 A. C.

* Happy if he could have persevered in this temperance to the end of his life, but Fortune had not yet poisoned his mind.

† The king boasting that he imitated Achilles, from whom he supposed himself descended, in the infliction of this punishment upon his enemy.

9. Alexander now projected the conquest of India, firmly persuaded that the gods had decreed him the sovereignty of the whole habitable globe. He penetrated to the Ganges, and would have proceeded to the eastern ocean, if the spirit of his army had kept pace with his ambition. But his troops, seeing no end to their toils, refused to proceed. He returned to the Indus, whence sending round his fleet to the Persian gulf under Nearchus, he marched his army across the desert to Persepolis.

10. Indignant that he had found a limit to his conquests, he abandoned himself to every excess of luxury and debauchery. The arrogance of his nature, and the ardour of his passions, heightened by continual intemperance, broke out into the most outrageous excesses of cruelty, for which, in the few intervals of sober reflection, his ingenuous mind suffered the keenest remorse. From Persepolis he returned to Babylon, and there died in a fit of debauch, in the thirty-third year of his age, and thirteenth of his reign, 324 A. C.

11. Of the character of Alexander the most opposite and contradictory estimates have been formed. While by some he is esteemed nothing better than a fortunate madman, he is by others celebrated for the grandeur, wisdom, and solidity of his political views. Truth is rarely to be found in extreme censure or applause. We may allow to Alexander the spirit and the talents of a great military genius, without combining with these the sober plans of a profound politician. In a moral view of his character, we see an excellent and ingenuous nature corrupted at length by an unvarying current of success, and a striking example of the fatal violence of the passions, when eminence of fortune removes all restraint, and flattery stimulates to their uncontrolled indulgence.

SECTION XVII.

SUCCESSORS OF ALEXANDER.

1. Alexander, on his death-bed, named no successor, but gave his ring to Perdiccas, one of his officers. When his courtiers asked him to whom he wished the empire to devolve upon his death, he replied, "To the most worthy;" and he is said to have added, that he foresaw this legacy would prepare for him very extraordinary funeral rites; a prediction which was fully verified.

2. Perdiccas, sensible that his pretensions would not justify a direct assumption of the government of this vast empire, brought about a division of the whole among thirty-three of the principal officers; and trusting to their inevitable dissensions, he proposed by that means to reduce all of them under his own authority. Hence arose a series of wars and intrigues, of which the detail is barren both of amusement and useful information. It is sufficient to say, that their consequence was a total extirpation of the family of Alexander, and a new partition of the empire into four great monarchies, the shares of Ptolemy, Lysimachus, Cassander, and Seleucus. Of these the most powerful were that of Syria under Seleucus and his descendants, and that of Egypt the Ptolemies.

"We cannot (says Condillac) fix our attention on the history of the successors of Alexander, though a great theatre is opened to our view, a variety of scenes, and multiplied catastrophes. A picture is often displeasing from the very circumstance of its greatness. We

lose the connexion of its parts, because the eye cannot take them in at once. Still less will a large picture give us pleasure, if every part of it presents a different scene, each unconnected with the other." Such is the history of the successors of Alexander.

SECTION XVIII.

FALL AND CONQUEST OF GREECE.

1. Nor is the history of Greece from the period of the death of Alexander any longer an interesting or pleasing object of contemplation. Demosthenes once more made a noble attempt to vindicate the national freedom, and to rouse his countrymen, the Athenians, to shake off the yoke of Macedon. But it was too late. The pacific counsels of Phocion suited better the languid spirit of this once illustrious people.

2. The history of the different republics present from this time nothing but a disgusting series of uninteresting revolutions; with the exception only of that last effort made by the Achæan states to revive the expiring liberty of their country. The republic of Achaia was a league of a few of the smaller states to vindicate their freedom against the domineering spirit of the greater. They committed the government of the league to Aratus of Sicyon, with the title of prætor, a young man of high ambition, who immediately conceived the more extensive project of rescuing the whole of Greece from the dominion of Macedon. But the jealousy of the greater states rendered this scheme abortive. Sparta refused to arrange itself under the guidance of the prætor of Achaia: and Aratus, forgetting his patriotic designs, sought only now to wreak his vengeance against the Lacedæmonians. For this purpose, with the most inconsistent policy, he courted the aid even of the Macedonians: the very tyrants who had enslaved his country.

3. The period was now come for the intervention of a foreign power, which was to reduce all under its wide-spreading dominion. The Romans were at this time the most powerful of all the contemporary nations. The people of Etolia, attacked by the Macedonians, with a rash policy besought the aid of the Romans, who, eager to add to their dominion this devoted country, cheerfully obeyed the summons, and speedily accomplished the reduction of Macedonia. Perseus, its last sovereign, was led captive to Rome, and graced the triumph of Paulus Æmilius, 167 A. C. From that period the Romans were hastily advancing to the dominion of all Greece; a progress in which their art was more conspicuous than their virtue. They gained their end by fostering dissensions between the states, which they directed to their own advantage, corrupting their principal citizens, and using, in fine, every art of the most insidious policy. A pretext was only wanting to unsheath the sword, and this was furnished by the Achæan states, who insulted the deputies of imperial Rome. This drew on them at once the resentment of the Romans. Metellus marched his legions into Greece, gave them battle, and entirely defeated them. Mummius the consul terminated the work, and made an easy conquest of the whole of Greece, which from that period became a Roman province, under the name of Achaia, 146 A. C.

4. Rome had acquired from her conquests a flood of wealth, and began now to manifest a taste for luxury, and a spirit of refinement.

In these points Greece was to its conquerors an instructer and a model:

> Græcia capta ferum victorem cepit, et artes
> Intulit agresti Latio.*————————

Hence, even though vanquished, it was regarded with a species of respect by its ruder masters.

SECTION XIX.

POLITICAL REFLECTIONS ARISING FROM THE HISTORY OF THE STATES OF GREECE.

1. The revolutions which the states of Greece underwent, and the situations into which they were thrown by their connexion and differences with each other, and their wars with foreign nations, were so various, that their history is a school of instruction in political science. The surest test of the truth or falsehood of abstract principles of politics, is their application to actual experience and to the history of nations.

2. The oppression which the states of Greece suffered under their ancient despots, who were subject to no constitutional control, was a most justifiable motive for their establishing a new form of government, which promised them the enjoyment of greater political freedom. We believe too that those new forms of government were framed by their virtuous legislators in the true spirit of patriotism. But as to the real merits of those political fabrics, it is certain that they were very far from corresponding in practice with what was expected from them in theory. We seek in vain, either in the history of Athens or Lacedæmon, for the beautiful idea of a well-ordered commonwealth. The revolutions of government which they were ever experiencing, the eternal factions with which they were embroiled, plainly demonstrate that there was a radical defect in the structure of the machine, which precluded the possibility of regular motion. The condition of the people under those governments was such as partook more of servitude and oppression, than that of the subjects of the most despotic monarchies. The slaves formed the actual majority of the inhabitants in all the states of Greece. To these the free citizens were rigorous bond-masters. Bondage being a consequence of the contraction of debts even by freemen, a great proportion of these was subject to the tyrannical control of their fellow-citizens. Nor were the richer classes in the actual enjoyment of independence. They were perpetually divided into factions, which servilely ranked themselves under the banners of the contending chiefs of the republic. Those parties were kept together solely by corruption. The whole was therefore a system of servility and debasement of spirit, which left nothing of a free or ingenuous nature in the condition of individuals, nor any thing that could furnish encomium to a real advocate for the dignity of human nature.

Such was the condition of the chief republics of antiquity. Their governments promised in theory, what they never conferred in practice, the political happiness of the citizens.

* For conquered Greece subdued her conquering foe,
And taught rude Rome, the arts of peace to know.

3. "In democracy (says Dr. Fergusson) men must love equality; they must respect the rights of their fellow-citizens; they must be satisfied with that degree of consideration which they can procure by their abilities fairly measured against those of an opponent; they must labour for the public without hope of profit; they must reject every attempt to create a personal dependance." This is the picture of a republic in theory. If we reverse this picture in every single particular, and take its direct opposite, we shall have the true portrait of a republican government in practice.

4. It is the fundamental theory of Montesquieu's *Spirit of Laws*, that the three distinct forms of government, the monarchical, despotical, and republican, are influenced by the three separate principles of honour, fear, and virtue; and this theory is the foundation on which the author builds a great part of his political doctrines. That each of these principles is exclusively essential to its respective form of government, but unnecessary and even prejudicial in the others, is a position contrary both to reason and to truth. No form of government can subsist where every one of those principles has not its operation. The admission of such a theory leads to the most mischievous conclusions; as, for example, that in monarchies the state dispenses with virtue in its officers and magistrates; that public employments ought to be venal; and that crimes, if kept secret, are of no consequence.

5. It is only in the infant periods of the Grecian history that we are to look for those splendid examples of patriotism and heroic virtue, which the ardent mind of uncorrupted youth will ever delight to contemplate. The most remarkable circumstance which strikes us on comparing the latter with the more early periods of the history of the Greeks, is the total change in the genius and spirit of the people. The ardour of patriotism, the thirst of military glory, the enthusiasm of liberty, decline with the rising grandeur and opulence of the nation, and an enthusiasm of another species, and far less worthy in its aim, succeeds: an admiration of the fine arts, a violent passion for the objects of taste, and for the refinements of luxury. This leads us to consider Greece in the light in which, after the loss of its liberty, it still continued to attract the admiration of other nations.

SECTION XX.

STATE OF THE ARTS IN GREECE.

1. It is not among the Greeks that we are to look for the greatest improvements in the useful and necessary arts of life. In agriculture, manufactures, commerce, they never were greatly distinguished. But in those which are termed the fine arts, Greece surpassed all the contemporary nations. The monuments of those which yet remain are the models of imitation, and the confessed standard of excellence, in the judgment of the most polished nations of modern times.

2. After the defeat of Xerxes the active spirit of the Athenians, which would have otherwise languished for want of an object, taking a new direction from luxury, displayed itself signally in all the works of taste in the fine arts. The administration of Pericles was the æra of luxury and splendour. The arts broke out at once with surprising lustre; and architecture, sculpture, and painting, were carried

to the summit of perfection. This golden age of the arts in Greece endured for about a century, till after the death of Alexander the great.

3. The Greeks were the parents of that system of architecture which is universally allowed to be the most perfect.

The Greek architecture consisted of three distinct orders: the Doric, the Ionic, and Corinthian.

The Doric has a masculine grandeur, and a superior air of strength to both the others. It is therefore best adapted to works of great magnitude, and of a sublime character. The character of sublimity is essentially connected with chasteness and simplicity. Of this order is the temple of Theseus at Athens, built ten years after the battle of Marathon, and at this day almost entire.

The Ionic order is light and elegant. The former has a masculine grandeur; the latter a feminine elegance. The Ionic is likewise simple: for simplicity is an essential requisite in true beauty. Of this order were the temple of Apollo at Miletus, the temple of the Delphic oracle, and the temple of Diana at Ephesus.

The Corinthian marks an age of luxury and magnificence, when pomp and splendour had become the predominant passion, but had not yet extinguished the taste for the sublime and beautiful. It attempts therefore a union of all these characters, but satisfies not the chastened judgment, and pleases only a corrupted taste.

——————"First unadorned,
"And nobly plain, the manly Doric rose;
"The Ionic then, with decent matron grace,
"Her airy pillar heav'd; luxuriant last
"The rich Corinthian spread her wanton wreath."

THOMPSON'S *Liberty*, *Part* 2.

4. The Tuscan and the Composite orders are of Italian origin. The Etruscan architecture appears to have been nearly allied to the Grecian, but to have possessed an inferior degree of elegance. The Trajan column at Rome is of this order; less remarkble for the beauty of its proportions than for the admirable sculpture which decorates it. The Composite order is what its name implies; it shows that the Greeks had in the three original orders exhausted all the principles of grandeur and beauty; and that it was not possible to frame a fourth, except by combining the former.

5. The Gothic architecture offers no contradiction to these observations. The effect which it produces cannot be altogether accounted for from the rules of symmetry or harmony in the proportions between the several parts; but depends on a certain idea of vastness, gloominess, and solemnity, which are powerful ingredients in the sublime.

6. Sculpture was brought by the Greeks to as high perfection as architecture. The remains of Grecian sculpture are at this day the most perfect models of the art: and the modern artists have no means of attaining to excellence so certain, as the study of those great master-pieces.

7. The excellence of the Greeks in sculpture may perhaps be accounted for chiefly from their having the human figure often before their eyes quite naked, and in all its various attitudes, both in the *palæstra*, and in the public games. The antique statues have therefore a grandeur united with perfect simplicity, because the attitude is

not the result of an artificial disposition of the figure, as in the modern academies, but is nature unconstrained. Thus, in the Dying Gladiator, when we observe the relaxation of the muscles, and the visible failure of strength and life, we cannot doubt that nature was the sculptor's immediate model of imitation.*

8. And this nature was in reality superior to what we now see in the ordinary race of men. The constant practice of gymnastic exercises gave a finer conformation of body than what is now to be found in the vitiated pupils of modern effeminacy, the artificial children of modern fashion.

9. A *secondary* cause of the eminence of the Greeks in the arts of design, was their theology, which furnished an ample exercise for the genius of the sculptor and painter.

10. We must speak with more diffidence of the ability of the Greeks in painting, than we do of their superiority in sculpture; because the existing specimens of the former are extremely rare, and the pieces which are preserved are probably not the most excellent. But in the want of actual evidence we have every presumption that the Greeks had attained to equal perfection in the art of painting and in sculpture; for if we find the judgment given by ancient writers of their excellence in sculpture confirmed by the universal assent of the best critics among the moderns, we have every reason to presume an equal rectitude in the judgment which the same ancient writers have pronounced upon their paintings. If Pliny is right in his opinion of the merits of those statues which yet remain, the Venus of Praxiteles, and the Laocoon of Agesander, Polydorus, and Athenodorus, we have no reason to suppose his taste to be less just when he celebrates the merits, and critically characterizes the different manners of Zeuxis, Apelles, Parrhasius, Protogenes, and Timanthes, whose works have perished.

11. The paintings found in Herculaneum, Pompeii, the Sepulchrum Nasonianum at Rome, were probably the work of Greek artists; for the Romans were never eminent in any of the arts dependent on design. These paintings exhibit great knowledge of proportions, and of the chiaro-oscuro; but betray an ignorance of the rules of perspective.

12. The music of the ancients appears to have been very greatly inferior to that of the moderns.

13. The peculiar genius of the Greeks in the fine arts extended its effects to the revolutions of their states, and influenced their fate as a nation.

SECTION XXI.

OF THE GREEK POETS.

1. The Greeks were the first who reduced the athletic exercises to a system, and considered them as an object of general attention and importance. The Panathenæan, and afterwards the Olympic, the Pythian, Nemæan, and Isthmian games, were under the regulation of the laws. They contributed essentially to the improvement of the nation; and, while they cherished martial ardour, and promoted har-

* *Cresilas vulneratum deficientem fecit, ex quo possit intelligi quantum restet animi.* Plin. lib. 36. Cresilas has represented a wounded man fainting, from which we may perceive how much life still remains.

diness and agility of body, they cultivated likewise urbanity and politeness.

2. The games of Greece were not confined to gymnastic or athletic exercises. They encouraged competitions in genius and learning. They were the resort of the poets, the historians, and the philosophers.

3. In all nations, poetry is of greater antiquity than prose composition. The earliest prose writers in Greece, Pherecydes of Scyros, and Cadmus of Miletus, were 350 years posterior to Homer. Any remains of the more ancient poets, as Linus, Orpheus, &c., are extremely suspicious. Homer is generally supposed to have flourished about 907 A. C.; to have followed the occupation of a wandering minstrel, and to have composed his poems in detached fragments, and separate ballads, and episodes. Pisistratus, about 540 A. C., employed some learned men to collect and methodize these fragments; and to this we owe the complete poems of the Iliad and Odyssey. The distinguishing merits of Homer are, his profound knowledge of human nature, his faithful and minute description of ancient manners, his genius for the sublime and beautiful, and the harmony of his poetical numbers. His fidelity as a historian has been questioned; but the great outlines of his narrative are probably authentic.

4. Hesiod was nearly contemporary with Homer: we should be little sensible of his merits, if they were not seen through the medium of an immense antiquity. The poem of the Works and Days contains some judicious precepts of agriculture. The Theogony is an obscure history of the origin of the gods, and the formation of the universe.

5. About two centuries after Homer and Hesiod, flourished Archilochus, the inventor of Iambic verse; Terpander, equally eminent as a poet and a musician; Sappho, of whose composition we have two exquisite odes; Alcæus and Simonides, of whom there are some fine fragments; and Pindar and Anacreon, who have left enough to allow an accurate estimate of their merits.

6. Pindar was esteemed by the ancients the chief of the lyric poets. He possesses unbounded fancy, and great sublimity of imagery; but his digressions are so rapid and so frequent, that we cannot discover the chain of thought; and his expression is allowed, even by Longinus, to be often obscure and unintelligible.

7. Anacreon is a great contrast to Pindar. His fancy suggests only familiar and luxurious pictures. He has no comprehension of the sublime, but contents himself with the easy, the graceful, and the wanton. His morality is loose, and his sentiments little else than the effusions of a voluptuary.

8. The collection termed *Anthologia*, which consists chiefly of ancient epigrams, contains many valuable specimens of the taste and poetical fancy of the Greeks, and contributes materially to the illustration of their manners. The best of the modern epigrams may be traced to this source.

9. The æra of the origin of dramatic composition among the Greeks is about 590 A. C. Thespis was contemporary with Solon. Within little more than a century, the Greek drama was carried to its highest perfection, for Æschylus died 456 A. C. Æschylus wrote sixty-six tragedies; for thirteen of which he gained the first prize of dramatic poetry at the Olympic games. Like Shakspeare, his genius is sublime, and his imagination unbounded. He disdained regularity of plan, and all artificial restriction; but unfortunately he disdained likewise the restraints of decency and of good morals.

10. Euripides and Sophocles flourished about fifty years after Æschylus. Euripides is most masterly in painting the passion of love, both in its tenderest emotions and in its most violent paroxysms: yet the characters of his women demonstrate that he had no great opinion of the virtues of the sex. Longinus does not rate high his talent for the sublime. But he possessed a much superior excellence: his verses, with great eloquence and harmony, breathe the most admirable morality. There remain twenty tragedies of Euripides; and of these, the Medea is deemed the best.

11. Sophocles shared with Euripides the palm of dramatic poetry; and is judged to have surpassed him in the grand and the sublime. Of 120 tragedies which he composed, only seven remain. They display great knowledge of the human heart, and a general chastity and simplicity of expression, which gave the greater force to the occasional strokes of the sublime. The Oedipus of Sophocles is esteemed the most perfect production of the Greek stage.

12. The Greek comedy is divided into the *ancient*, the *middle*, and the *new*. The first was a licentious satire and mimicry of real personages, exhibited by name upon the stage. The laws repressed this extreme license, and gave birth to the middle comedy, which continued the satirical delineation of real persons, but under fictitious names. The last improvement consisted in banishing all personal satire, and confining comedy to a delineation of manners. This was the new comedy. Of the first species, the ancient, we have no remains. The dramas of Aristophanes are an example of the second or middle comedy. The grossness of his raillery, and the malevolence which frequently inspired it, are a reproach to the morals of that people which could tolerate it. Yet his works have their value, as throwing light upon ancient manners.

13. Of the new comedy, Menander was the bright example; possessing a vein of the most delicate wit, with the utmost purity of moral sentiment. Unfortunately we have nothing of him remaining but a few fragments preserved by Athenæus. We see a great deal of his merits, however, in his copyist and translator, Terence.

14. The actors, both in the Greek and Roman theatres, wore masks, of which the features were strongly painted, and the mouth so constructed as to increase the power of the voice. It is probable that the tragedy and comedy of the Greeks and Romans were set to music, and sung, like the recitative in the Italian opera. Sometimes one person was employed to recite or sing the part, and another to perform the corresponding action or gesticulation.

15. The mimes were burlesque parodies on the serious tragedy and comedy. The pantomimes consisted solely of gesticulation, and were carried to great perfection.

SECTION XXII.

OF THE GREEK HISTORIANS.

1. The most eminent of the Greek historians were contemporaries. Herodotus died 413 A. C.; Thucydides 391 A. C.; and Xenophon was about twenty years younger than Thucydides. Herodotus writes the joint history of the Greeks and Persians, from the time of Cyrus, to the battles of Platæa and Mycale. He treats incidentally likewise of the Egyptians, Assyrians, Medes, and Lydians. His veracity is to be depended on in all matters that fell under his own obser-

vation; but he admits too easily the reports of others, and is in general fond of the marvellous. His style is pure, and he has a copious elocution.

3. Thucydides, himself an able general, has written, with great ability, the history of the first twenty-one years of the Peloponnesian war; introducing it with a short narrative of the preceding periods of the history of Greece. He is justly esteemed for his fidelity and candour. His style is a contrast to the full and flowing period of Herodotus, possessing a sententious brevity, which is at once lively and energetic. The history of the remaining six years of the war of Peloponnesus was written by Theopompus and Xenophon.

3. Xenophon commanded the Greek army in the service of Cyrus the younger, in his culpable enterprise against his brother Artaxerxes. (See Sect. XIII, § 6.) After the failure of this enterprise, Xenophon directed that astonishing retreat from Babylon to the Euxine, of which he has given a splendid and faithful narrative. He wrote likewise the Cyropedia, or the history of the elder Cyrus, which is belived to be rather an imaginary delineation of an accomplished prince than a real narration. He continued the history of Thucydides, and has left two excellent political tracts on the constitutions of Lacedæmon and Athens. His style is simple and energetic; but the brevity of his sentences sometimes obscures his meaning.

4. Greece, in its decline, produced some historians of great eminence. Polybius, a native of Megalopolis, wrote forty books of the Roman and Greek history during his own age; that is, from the beginning of the second Punic war to the reduction of Macedonia into a Roman province; but of this great work, only the first five books are entire, with an epitome of the following twelve. He merits less the praise of eloquence than of authentic information, and most judicious reflection.

5. Diodorus Siculus flourished in the time of Augustus, and composed, in forty books, a general history of the world, under the title of Bibliotheca Historica. No more remain than fifteen books; of which the first five treat of the fabulous periods, and the history of the Egyptians, Assyrians, Persians, Greeks, &c. prior to the Trojan war. The next five are wanting. The remainder brings down the history from the expedition of Xerxes into Greece till after the death of Alexander the great. He is taxed with chronological inaccuracy in the earlier parts of his work; but the authenticity and correctness of the later periods are unimpeached.

6. Dionysius of Halicarnassus, eminent both as a historian and rhetorician, flourished in the age of Augustus. His Roman Antiquities contain much valuable information, though his work is too much tinctured with the spirit of systematizing.

7. Plutarch, a native of Chæronea, in Bœotia, flourished in the reign of Nero. His Lives of Illustrious Men is one of the most valuable of the literary works of the ancients; introducing us to an acquaintance with the private character and manners of those eminent persons whose public achievements are recorded by professed historians. His morality is excellent; and his style, though unpolished, is clear and energetic.

8. Arrian wrote, in the reign of Adrian, seven books of the wars of Alexander, with great judgment and fidelity; his narrative being composed on the authority of Aristobulus and Ptolemy, two of Alexander's principal officers. His style is unadorned, but chaste, perspicuous, and manly.

SECTION XXIII.

OF THE GREEK PHILOSOPHERS.

1. After the time of Homer and Hesiod, the increasing relish for poetical composition gave rise to a set of men termed rhapsodists, whose employment was to recite at the games and festivals the compositions of the older poets, and to comment on their merits and explain their doctrines. Some of these, founding schools of instruction, were dignified by their pupils with the epithet of Sophists, or teachers of wisdom.

2. The most ancient school of philosophy was that founded by Thales, 640 A. C., and termed the Ionic. Thales is celebrated for his knowledge of geometry and astronomy. His metaphysical doctrines are imperfectly known. He taught the belief of a first cause, and an over-ruling providence; but supposed the Divinity to animate the universe, as the soul does the body. The moral doctrines of the Ionic school were pure and rational. The most eminent of the disciples of Thales were Anaximander and Anaxagoras.

3. Soon after the Ionic, arose the Italian sect, founded by Pythagoras, who was born about 586 A. C. He is supposed to have derived much of his knowledge from Egypt; and he had, like the Egyptian priests, a public doctrine for the people, and a private for his disciples; the former a good system of morals, the latter probably unintelligible mystery. His notions of the Divinity were akin to those of Thales; but he believed in the eternity of the universe, and its coexistence with the Deity. He taught the transmigration of the soul through different bodies. His disciples lived in common; abstained rigorously from the flesh of animals; and held music in high estimation, as a corrective of the passions. Pythagoras believed the earth to be a sphere, the planets to be inhabited, and the fixed stars to be the suns and centres of other systems. His most eminent followers were Empedocles, Epicharmus, Ocellus Lucanus, Timæus, Archytas.

4. The Eleatic sect was founded by Xenophanes, about 500 A. C. Its chief supporters were Parmenides, Zeno, and Leucippus, citizens of Elea. The metaphysical notions of this sect were utterly unintelligible. They maintained that things had neither beginning, end, nor any change; and that all the changes we perceive are in our own senses. Yet Leucippus taught the doctrine of atoms, whence he supposed all material substances to be formed. Of this sect were Democritus and Heraclitus.

5. The Socratic school arose from the Ionic. Socrates died 401 A. C., the wisest, the most virtuous of the Greeks. He exploded the futile logic of the Sophists, which consisted of a set of general arguments, applicable to all manner of questions, and by which they could, with an appearance of plausibility, maintain either side of any proposition. Socrates always brought his antagonist to particulars; beginning with a simple and undeniable position, which being granted, another followed equally undeniable, till the disputant was conducted step by step, by his own concessions, to that side of the question on which lay the truth. His rivals lost all credit as philosophers, but had influence to procure the destruction of the man who had exposed them. The doctrines of Socrates are to be learned from Plato and Xenophon. He taught the belief of a first cause, whose benefi-

cence is equal to his power, the Creator and Ruler of the universe. He inculcated the moral agency of man, the immortality of the soul, and a future state of reward and punishment. He exploded the polytheistic superstitions of his country, and thence became the victim of an accusation of impiety. (See Section XIII, § 5.)

6. The morality of Socrates was successfully cultivated by the Cyrenaic sect, but was pushed to extravagance by the Cynics. Virtue, in their opinion, consisted in renouncing all the conveniences of life. They clothed themselves in rags, slept and ate in the streets, or wandered about the country with a stick and a knapsack. They condemned all knowledge as useless. They associated impudence with ignorance, and indulged themselves in scurrility and invective without restraint.

7. The Megarian sect was the happy inventor of logical syllogism, or the art of quibbling.

8. Plato was the founder of the Academic sect: a philosopher, whose doctrines have had a more extensive empire over the minds of mankind, than those of any other among the ancients. This is in part owing to their intrinsic merit, and in part to the eloquence with which they have been propounded. Plato had the most sublime ideas of the Divinity and his attributes. He taught that the human soul was a portion of the Divinity, and that this alliance with the eternal mind might be improved into actual intercourse with the Supreme Being, by abstracting the soul from all the corruptions which it derives from the body: a doctrine highly flattering to the pride of man, and generating that mystical enthusiasm which has the most powerful empire over a warm imagination.

9. The Platonic philosophy found its chief opponents in four remarkable sects, the Peripatetic, the Sceptic, the Stoic, and the Epicurean.—

10. Aristotle, the founder of the Peripatetic sect, was the tutor of Alexander the great, and established his school in the Lyceum at Athens: a philosopher whose tenets have found more zealous partizans and more rancorous opponents, than those of any other. His Metaphysics, from the sententious brevity of his expression, are extremely obscure, and have given rise to numberless commentaries. The best analysis of his doctrines is given by Dr. Reid, in Lord Kames's Sketches of the History of Man. His physical works are the result of great observation and acquaintance with nature; and his critical writings, as his Poetics and Art of Rhetoric, display both taste and judgment. The peculiar passion of Aristotle was that of classifying, arranging, and combining the objects of his knowledge, so as to reduce all to a few principles: a very dangerous propensity in philosophy, and repressive of improvement in science.

11. The Sceptical sect was founded by Pyrrho. They formed no systems of their own, but endeavoured to weaken the foundations of those of all others. They inculcated universal doubt, as the only true wisdom. There was, in their opinion, no essential difference between vice and virtue, further than as human compact had discriminated them. Tranquillity of mind they supposed to be the state of the greatest happiness, and this was to be attained by absolute indifference to all dogmas or opinions.

12. The Stoics, proposing to themselves the same end, tranquillity of mind, took a nobler path to arrive at it. They endeavoured to raise themselves above all the passions and feelings of humanity. They believed all nature, and God himself, the soul of the universe,

to be regulated by fixed and immutable laws. The human soul being a portion of the Divinity, man cannot complain of being actuated by that necessity which actuates the Divinity himself. His pains and his pleasures are determined by the same laws which determine his existence. Virtue consists in accommodating the disposition of the mind to the immutable laws of nature; vice in opposing those laws: vice therefore is folly, and virtue the only true wisdom. A beautiful picture of the Stoical philosophy is found in the Meditations of M. Aurelius Antoninus. (See Madan's Translation.)

13. Epicurus taught that man's supreme happiness consisted in pleasure. He limited the term, so as to make it mean only the practice of virtue. But if pleasure is allowed to be the object, every man will draw it from those sources which he finds can best supply it. It might have been the pleasure of Epicurus to be chaste and temperate. We are told that it was so. But others find their pleasure in intemperance and luxury, and such was the taste of his principal followers. Epicurus held that the Deity was indifferent to all the actions of man. His followers therefore had no other counsellor than their own conscience, and no other guide than the instinctive desire of their own happiness.

14. The Greek philosophy, on the whole, affords little more than a picture of the imbecility and caprice of the human mind. Its teachers, instead of experiment and observation, satisfied themselves with constructing theories; and these wanting fact for their basis, have only served to perplex the understanding, and retard equally the advancement of sound morality and the progress of useful knowledge.

SECTION XXIV.

THE HISTORY OF ROME.

1. In the delineation of ancient history, Rome, after the conquest of Greece, becomes the leading object of attention. The history of this empire, in its progress to universal dominion, and afterwards in its decline and fall, involves a collateral account of all the other nations of antiquity, which in those periods are deserving of our consideration.

2. Though we cannot determine the æra when Italy was first peopled, yet we have every reason to believe that it was inhabited by a refined and cultivated nation, many ages before the Roman name was known. These were the Etruscans, of whom there exist at this day monuments in the fine arts, which prove them to have been a splendid, luxurious, and highly polished people.—Their alphabet, resembling the Phœnician, disposes us to believe them of eastern origin. The Roman historians mention them as a powerful and opulent nation long before the origin of Rome; and Dionysius of Halicarnassus deduces most of the religious rites of the Romans from Etruria.

3. The rest of Italy was divided among a number of independent tribes or nations, comparatively in a rude and uncultivated state; Umbrians, Ligurians, Sabines, Veientes, Latins, Æqui, Volsci, &c. Latium, a territory of fifty miles in length and sixteen in breadth, contained forty-seven independent cities or states.

4. The origin of the city and state of Rome is involved in great uncertainty. Dionysius supposes two cities of that name to have

existed, and to have perished before the foundation of the city built by Romulus. The vulgar account of the latter is, that it was founded 752 A. C. by a troop of shepherds or banditti, who peopled their new city by carrying off the wives and daughters of their neighbours, the Sabines.

5. The great outlines of the first constitution of the Roman government, though generally attributed to the political abilities of Romulus, seem to have a natural foundation in the usages of barbarous nations. Other institutions bear the traces of political skill and positive enactment.

6. Romulus is said to have divided his people into three tribes, and each tribe into ten *curiæ*. The lands he distributed into three portions; one for the support of the government, another for the maintenance of religion, and the third for the use of the Roman citizens, which he divided into equal portions of two acres to each citizen. He instituted a senate of 100 members (afterwards increased to 200,) who deliberated on and prepared all public measures for the assembly of the people, in whom was vested the right of determination. The partrician families were the descendants of those *centum patres* (*hundred fathers*).

7. The king had the nomination of the senators, the privilege of assembling the people, and a right of appeal in all questions of importance. He had the command of the army, and the office of *pontifex maximus* (*high priest*). He had, as a guard, twelve lictors, and a troop of horsemen named *celeres*, or *equites*, afterwards the distinct order of Roman knights. These regulations are of positive institution: others arose naturally from the state of society.

8. The *patria potestas* (*paternal authority*) is of the latter nature, being common to all barbarous tribes. The limitation of all arts to the slaves arose from the constant employment of the citizens in warfare or in agriculture.

9. The connexion of patron and client was an admirable institution, which at once united the citizens, and maintained a useful subordination.

10. The Sabines were the most formidable enemy of the early Romans; and a wise policy united for a while the two nations into one state. After the death of Romulus, who reigned thirty-seven years, Numa, a Sabine, was elected king. His disposition was pious and pacific, and he endeavoured to give his people the same character. He pretended to divine inspiration, to give the greater authority to his laws, which in themselves were excellent. He multiplied the national gods, built temples, and instituted different classes of priests, *flamines*, *salii*, &c., and a variety of religious ceremonies. The flamines officiated each in the service of a particular deity; the salii guarded the sacred bucklers; the vestals cherished the sacred fire; the augurs and aruspices divined future events from the flight of birds, and the entrails of victims. The temple of Janus was open in war, and shut during peace. Numa reformed the calendar, regulating the year at twelve lunar months, and distinguished the days for civil occupation (*fasti*) from those dedicated to religious rest (*nefasti*). Agriculture was lawful on the latter, as a duty of religion. Numa reigned forty-three years.

11. Tullus Hostilius, the third king of Rome, of warlike disposition, subdued the Albans, Fidenates, and other neighbouring states. The Sabines, now disunited from the Romans, were among the most powerful of their enemies. Tullus reigned thirty three years.

12. Ancus Martius, the grandson of Numa, was elected king on the death of Tullus. He inherited the piety and virtues of his grandfather, and joined to these the talents of a warrior. He increased the population of Rome, by naturalizing some of the conquered states; enlarged and fortified the city, and built the port of Ostia at the mouth of the Tiber. He reigned gloriously twenty-four years.

13. Tarquinius Priscus, a citizen of Corinth, popular from his wealth and liberality, was elected to the vacant throne. He enlarged the senate by 100 new members from the plebeian families, *patres minorum gentium* (*the fathers of the less families*). This body consisted now of 300, at which number it remained for some centuries. Tarquin was victorious in his wars, and adorned and improved the city with works of utility and magnificence. Such were the circus or hippodrome, the walls of hewn stone; the capitol; the cloacæ, those immense common sewers, which lead to the belief that the new Rome had been built on the ruins of an ancient city of greater magnitude. Tarquinius was assassinated in the thirty-eighth year of his reign.

14. Servius Tullius, who had married the daughter of Tarquinius, secured, by his own address and the intrigues of his mother-in-law, his election to the vacant throne. He courted popularity by acts of munificence; discharging the debts of the poor, dividing among the citizens his patrimonial lands, improving the city with useful edifices, and extending its boundaries. The new arrangement which he introduced in the division of the Roman citizens is a proof of much political ability, and merits attention, as on it depended many of the revolutions of the republic.

15. From the time that the Romans had admitted the Albans and Sabines to the rights of citizens, the urban and rustic tribes were composed of those three nations. Each tribe being divided into ten *curiæ*, and every curia having an equal vote in the *comitia*, as each individual had in his tribe, all questions were decided by the majority of suffrages. There was no pre-eminence between the *curiæ*, and the order in which they gave their votes was determined by lot. This was a reasonable constitution, so long as the fortunes of the citizens were nearly on a par; but, when riches came to be unequally divided, it was obvious that much inconvenience must have arisen from this equal partition of power, as the rich could easily, by bribery, command the suffrages of the poor. Besides, all the taxes had hitherto been levied by the head, without any regard to the inequality of fortunes. These obvious defects furnished to Servius a just pretext for an entire change of system. His plan was, to remove the poorer citizens from all share of the government, while the burdens attending its support should fall solely on the rich.

16. All the citizens were required, under a heavy penalty, to declare upon oath their names, dwellings, number of their children, and amount of their fortune. After this numeration or *census*, Servius divided the whole citizens, without distinction, into four tribes, named, from the quarters where they dwelt, the *Palatine*, *Suburran*, *Collatine*, and *Esquiline*. Beside this local division, Servius distributed the whole people into six classes, and each class into several centuries or portions of citizens so called, not as actually consisting of a hundred, but as being obliged to furnish and maintain 100 men in time of war. In the first class, which consisted of the richest citizens, or those who were worth at least 100 *minæ* (about 300*l.* sterling), there were no less than ninety-eight centuries. In the second

class (those worth 75 *minæ*) there were twenty-two centuries. In the third (those worth 50 *minæ*) were twenty centuries. In the fourth (those worth 25 *minæ*) twenty-two centuries. In the fifth (those worth 12 *minæ*) thirty centuries. The sixth, the most numerous of the whole, comprehending all the poorer citizens, furnished only one century. Thus the whole Roman people were divided into 193 centuries, or portions of citizens, so called, as furnishing each a hundred soldiers. The sixth class was declared exempt from taxes. The other classes, according to the number of centuries of which they consisted, were rated for the public burdens at so much for each century.

17. The poor had no reason to complain of this arrangement; but something was wanting to compensate the rich for the burdens to which they were subjected. For this purpose Servius enacted, that henceforth the *comitia* should give their votes by centuries; the first class, consisting of ninety-eight centuries, always voting first. Thus, though the whole people were called to the *comitia*, and all seemed to have an equal suffrage, yet in reality the richer classes determined every question, the suffrage of the poor being merely nominal; for as the whole people formed 193 centuries, and the first and second classes contained 120 of these, if they were unanimous, which generally happened in questions of importance, a majority was secured. Thus, in the *comitia centuriata* (*assemblies in which the people voted by centuries*), in which the chief magistrates were elected, peace and war decreed, and all other important business discussed, the richer classes of the citizens had the sole authority, the votes of the poor being of no avail. And such was the ingenuity of this policy, that all were pleased with it: the rich paid their taxes with cheerfulness, as the price of their power; and the poor gladly exchanged authority for immunities. The census, performed every five years, was closed by a *lustrum*, or expiatory sacrifice; and hence that period of time was called a *lustrum*.

18. Servius was assassinated, after a reign of forty-four years, by his infamous daughter Tullia, married to Tarquinius, the grandson of Priscus, who thus paved the way for his own elevation to the throne. The government of Tarquin, surnamed the proud, was systematically tyrannical. He ingratiated himself with the lower orders, to abase by their means the power of the higher; but, insolent, rapacious, and cruel, he finally disgusted all ranks of his subjects. A rape committed by his son Sextus on Lucretia, the wife of Collatinus, who, unable to survive her dishonour, stabbed herself in presence of her husband and kindred, roused their vengeance, and procured, by their influence with their countrymen, the expulsion of the tyrant, and the utter abolition of the regal dignity at Rome, 509 A. C.

Reflections on the Government and State of Rome during the period of the kings.

19. The whole structure of the constitution of the Romans under the monarchy has been by most authors erroneously attributed exclusively to the abilities of Romulus, a youth of eighteen, the leader of a troop of shepherds or banditti. This chimerical idea we owe to Dionysius of Halicarnassus. The truth is, the Roman government, like almost every other, was the gradual result of circumstances; the fruit of time, and of political emergency.

20. The constitution of the Roman senate has occasioned consider-

able research, and is not free from obscurity. It is probable that the kings had the sole right of naming the senators, that the consuls succeeded them in this right, and afterwards, when these magistrates found too much occupation from the frequent wars in which the state was engaged, that privilege devolved on the censors. The senators were at first always chosen from the body of the patricians, but afterwards the plebeians acquired an equal title to that dignity. In the early periods of the republic the people could not be assembled but by the senate's authority; nor were the *plebiscita* (*decrees of the people*) of any weight till confirmed by their decree. Hence the early constitution of the republic was rather aristocratical than democratical. From this extensive power of the senate the first diminution was made by the creation of the tribunes of the people; and other retrenchments successively took place, till the people acquired at length the predominant power in the state. Yet the senate, even after every usurpation on their authority, continued to have, in many points, a supremacy. They regulated all matters regarding religion; had the custody of the public treasure; superintended the conduct of all magistrates; gave audience to ambassadors; decided on the fate of vanquished nations; disposed of the governments of the provinces; and took cognizance, by appeal, in all crimes against the state. In great emergencies they appointed a dictator, with absolute authority.

21. At the period of the abolition of the regal government the territory of the Romans was extremely limited. The only use which they made of their victories was to naturalize the inhabitants of some of the conquered states, and so increase their population. Thus, their strength being always superior to their enterprise, they laid a solid foundation for the future extension of their empire.

22. In the accounts given by historians of the strength of the armies, both of the Romans in those early times, and of the neighbouring states, their enemies, we have every reason to believe there is much exaggeration. The territories from which those armies were furnished were incapable of supplying them.

23. In the continual wars in which the republic was engaged the Romans were most commonly the aggressors. The causes of this seem to have been the ambition of the consuls to distinguish their short administration by some splendid enterprise, and the wish of the senate to give the people occupation, to prevent intestine disquiets.

24. The regal government subsisted 244 years, and in that time only seven kings reigned, several of whom died a violent death. These circumstances throw doubt on the authenticity of this period of the Roman history. It is allowed that there were no historians for the five first centuries after the building of Rome. The first is Fabius Pictor, who lived during the second Punic war. Livy says that almost all the ancient records were destroyed when Rome was taken by the Gauls.

SECTION XXV.

ROME UNDER THE CONSULS.

1. The regal government being abolished, it was agreed to commit the supreme authority to two magistrates, who should be annually elected by the people from the patrician order. To these they gave the names of *consules*; "a modest title, (says Vertot), which gave to

understand that they were rather the counsellors of the republic than its sovereigns; and that the only point which they ought to have in view was its preservation and glory." But, in fact, their authority differed scarcely in any thing from that of the kings. They had the supreme administration of justice, the disposal of the public money, the power of convoking the senate and assembling the people, raising armies, naming all the officers, and the right of making peace and war. The only difference was, that their authority was limited to a year.

2. The first consuls were Brutus and Collatinus (the husband of Lucretia). Tarquin was at this time in Etruria, where he got two of the most powerful cities, Veii and Tarquinii, to espouse his cause. He had likewise his partisans at Rome, and a plot was formed to open the gates to receive him. It was detected, and Brutus had the mortification to find his two sons in the number of the conspirators. He condemned them to be beheaded in his presence. *Exuit patrem ut consulem ageret; orbusque vivere, quam publicæ vindictæ deesse maluit.* Val. Max. *He ceased to be a father, that he might execute the duties of a consul; and chose to live childless rather than to neglect the public punishment of a crime.*

3. The consul Valerius, successful in an engagement with the exiled Tarquin, was the first Roman who enjoyed the splendid reward of a triumph. Arrogant from his recent honours, his popularity began to decline; and, in a view of recovering it, he proposed the law, termed from him the Valerian, which "permitted any citizen who had been condemned to death by a magistrate, or even to banishment or scourging, to appeal to the people, and required their consent previously to the execution of the sentence." This law gave the first blow to the aristocracy in the constitution of the Roman republic.

4. For thirteen years after the expulsion of Tarquin, the Romans were involved in continual wars on his account. Of these the most remarkable was the war with the Etrurians, under Porsena; a war fertile in exploits of romantic heroism.

5. Soon after this period began those domestic disorders, which continued long to embroil the republic. Great complaints had arisen among the poorer classes of the citizens, both on account of the inequality of property, from the partial distribution of the conquered lands, which the higher ranks generally contrived to engross to themselves, and from the harsh policy by which it was in the power of creditors to reduce to a state of slavery their insolvent debtors. As there was no legal restraint on usury, the poor, when once reduced to the necessity of contracting debts, were left entirely at the mercy of their creditors. These grievances, felt in common by a large proportion of the citizens, excited much discontent, which, from complaints long disregarded, grew at length into a spirit of determined resistance. The wars required new levies, and the plebeians positively refused to enrol their names, unless the senate should put an end to their oppression, by decreeing at once an abolition of all the debts due by the poor to the rich. The emergency was critical, as the enemy was at the gates of Rome. The consuls found their authority of no avail; for the Valerian law had given any citizen condemned by them a right of appeal to the people. An extraordinary measure was necessary, and a *dictator* was created for the first time; a magistrate who, for the period of six months, was invested with absolute and unlimited authority. Lartius, nominated to this high

office, armed the twenty-four lictors with axes, summoned the whole people to the comitia, and calling over the names, under the penalty of death to any citizen who should dare to murmur, enrolled all such as he judged most fit for the service of their country. This expedient became henceforward a frequent and certain resource in all seasons of public danger.

6. The death of Tarquin removed one check against the tyranny of the higher over the lower orders; for the latter had hitherto kept alive a salutary apprehension, that, in case of extreme oppression, they would be under the necessity of calling back their king. When this fear was at an end, the domineering spirit of the patricians, exceeding every bound both of good policy and humanity, drove the people at length to deeds of mutiny and rebellion. An alarm from the enemy gave full weight to their power, and made the chief magistrates of the state solemnly engage their honour to procure a redress of their grievances, as soon as the public danger was at an end. The promise, either from a failure of will or of power, was not fulfilled, and this violation of faith drove the people at length to extremities. Bound by their military oath not to desert their standards, they carried them along with them; and the whole army, in military array, withdrew from Rome, and deliberately encamped on the Mons Sacer, at three miles distance from the city; and here they were soon joined by the greater part of the people. This resolute procedure had its desired effect. The senate deputed ten persons, the most respectable of their order, with plenary powers; and these, seeing no medium of compromise, granted to the people all their demands. The debts were solemnly abolished; and, for the security of their privileges in future, they were allowed the right of choosing magistrates of their own order, who should have the power of opposing with effect every measure which they should judge prejudicial to their interests. These were the *tribunes* of the people, chosen annually; at first five in number, and afterwards increased to ten. Without guards or tribunal, and having no seat in the senate-house, they had yet the power, by a single *veto*, to suspend or annul the decrees of the senate and the sentences of the consuls. Their persons were declared sacred, but their authority was confined to the limits of a mile from the city. The tribunes demanded and obtained two magistrates to assist them, who were termed ædiles, from the charge committed to them of the buildings of the city.

7. From this æra (260 years from the foundation of Rome) we date the commencement of the popular constitution of the Roman republic: a change operated by the unwise policy of the patricians themselves, who, by yielding to just complaints, and humanely redressing flagrant abuses, might have easily anticipated every ground of dissatisfaction. The first wish of the people was not power, but relief from tyranny and oppression; and if this had been readily granted them by abolishing the debts, or at least by repressing enormous usury, and putting an end to the inhuman right of corporal punishment and the bondage of debtors, the people would have cheerfully returned to order and submission, and the Roman constitution would have long remained aristocratical, as we have seen it was at the commencement of the consular government. But the plebeians having now obtained magistrates of their own order with those high powers, we shall see it become the object of those magistrates to increase their authority by continual demands and bold encroachments. The people, regarding them as the champions of their rights, are delight-

ed to find themselves gradually approaching to a level with the higher order; and, no longer bounding their desires to ease and security, are soon equally influenced by ambition as their superiors. While this people, borne down by injustice, seek no more than the redress of real grievances, we sympathize with their feelings, and applaud their spirited exertions. But when they had at length compassed the end which they wished, obtained ease and security, nay, power which they had neither sought nor expected; when we see them, after this, increasing in their demands, assuming that arrogance which they justly blamed in their superiors, goaded on by the ambition of their leaders to tyrannize in their turn; we view with proper discrimination the love of liberty and its extreme licentiousness; and treat with just detestation the authors of those pernicious measures, which embroiled the state in endless faction, and paved the way for the total loss of that liberty, of which this deluded people knew not the value when they actually possessed it.

SECTION XXVI.

THE LAW OF VOLERO.

1. The disorders of the commonwealth, appeased by the creation of the tribunes, were but for a time suspended. It was necessary that the popular magistrates should make an experiment of their powers. In an assembly of the people one of the consuls, interrupted by a tribune, rashly said, that if the tribunes had called that assembly, he would not have interrupted them. This was a concession on the part of the consuls, that the tribunes had the power of assembling the comitia, which, from that moment, they assumed as their acknowledged right. It was a consequence of this right, that the affairs of the commonwealth should be agitated in those meetings, equally as in the assemblies held in virtue of a consular summons, or senatorial decree, and thus there were, in a manner, two distinct legislative powers established in the republic.

2. The trial of Coriolanus for inconsiderately proposing the abolition of the tribunate, an offence interpreted to be treason against the state, threw an additional weight into the scale of the people. The proposal of an agrarian law, for the division of the lands acquired by recent conquests, resumed at intervals, though never carried into execution, inflamed the passions of the rival orders.

3. Publius Volero, formerly a centurion, and a man distinguished for his military services, had, in the new levies, been ranked as a common soldier. Complaining of this unmerited degradation, he refused his services in that capacity; and the consuls having condemned him to corporal punishment, he appealed from their sentence to the people. The contest lasted till the annual term of elections, when Volero himself was chosen a tribune of the people. He had an ample revenge, by procuring the enactment of a most important law. The comitia by centuries and by curiæ could be called only in virtue of a decree of the senate, after consulting the auspices; and in those comitia the tribunes had hitherto been elected, and the most important public affairs discussed. It was decreed by the law of Volero, that the election of the tribunes should be made, and the chief public business henceforward discussed, in the comitia held by tribes, which were unfettered by any of those restraints. From this

period the supreme authority in the Roman republic may be considered as having passed completely from the higher order into the hands of the people. The Roman constitution was now plainly a democracy, 471 A. C.

SECTION XXVII.

THE DECEMVIRATE.

1. The Romans had, till this period, no body of civil laws.—Under the regal government the kings alone administered justice; the consuls succeeded them in this high prerogative, and thus possessed without control the absolute command of the fortunes and civil rights of all the citizens. To remedy this great defect, Terentillus, a tribune, proposed the nomination of ten commissioners, to frame and digest a code of laws for the explanation and security of the rights of all orders of the state. A measure so equitable ought to have met with no opposition. It was, however, strenuously opposed by the patricians, who, by a fruitless contest, only exposed their own weakness. The decemviri were chosen; but the election being made in the comitia by centuries, the consul Appius Claudius, with his colleague, were at the head of this important commission. The laws were framed, those celebrated statutes known by the name of the Twelve Tables, which are the basis of the great structure of the Roman jurisprudence, 451 A. C.

2. An acquaintance with these ancient laws is therefore of importance. Even in the most flourishing times of the republic they continued to be of the highest authority. They have the encomium of Cicero himself; and we learn from him, that to commit these laws to memory was an essential part of a liberal education. From the twelve tables the jurisconsulti composed a system of judicial forms, for the regulation of the different tribunals. The number of the laws was likewise from time to time increased by the *senatusconsulta* and *plebiscita*.

3. The decemvirs were invested with all the powers of government, for the consulate had ceased on their creation. Each decemvir by turn presided for a day, and had the sovereign authority, with its insignia, the fasces. The nine others officiated solely as judges in the determination of lawsuits, and the correction of abuses. An abuse, however, of the most flagrant nature, committed by the chief of their own number, was destined speedily to bring their office to its termination.

4. Appius Claudius, inflamed by lawless passion for the young Virginia, the betrothed spouse of Icilius, formerly a tribune of the people, employed a profligate dependant to claim the maiden as his own property, on the false pretence of her being the daughter of one of his female slaves. The claim was made to the decemvir himself in judgment, who pronounced an infamous decree, which tore from her family this helpless victim, and put her into the hands of his own minion. Her father, to save the honour of his child, plunged a dagger into her breast; and the people, witnesses of this shocking scene, would have massacred Appius on the spot, if he had not found means to escape amidst the tumult. Their vengeance, however, was satiated by the instant abolition of this hated magistracy, and by the death of Appius, who chose by his own hand to

prevent the stroke of the executioner. The decemvirate had subsisted for three years. The consuls were now restored, together with the tribunes of the people, 449 A. C.

SECTION XXVIII.

INCREASE OF THE POPULAR POWER.

1. The scale of the people was daily acquiring weight, at the expense of that of the highest order. Two barriers, however, still separated the patricians and plebeians: one, a law which prevented their intermarriage, and the other, the constitutional limitation of all the higher offices to the order of the patricians. It was only necessary to remove these restrictions, and the patricians and plebeians were on a footing of perfect equality. The first, after a long but fruitless contest, was at length agreed to by the senate; and this concession had its usual effect of stimulating the people to inflexible perseverance in their struggle for the latter. On an emergence of war the customary device was practised, of refusing to enter the rolls, unless upon the immediate enactment of a law, which should admit their capacity of holding all the offices of the republic. The senate sought a palliative, by the creation of six military tribunes in lieu of the consuls, three of whom should be patricians, and three plebeians. This measure satisfied the people for a time: the consuls, however, were soon restored.

2. The disorders of the republic, and frequent wars, had interrupted the regular survey of the citizens. This was remedied by the creation of a new magistracy. Two officers, under the title of censors, were appointed (437 A. C.), whose duty was not only to make the *census* every five years, but to inspect the morals, and regulate the duties of all the citizens: an office of dignity equal to its importance, exercised, in the latter times of the republic, only by consular persons, and afterwards annexed to the supreme functions of the emperors.

3. The dissensions between the orders continued, with little variation either in their causes or effects. The people generally, as the last resource, refused to enrol themselves, till overawed by the supreme authority of a dictator. To obviate the frequent necessity of this measure, which enforced at best an unwilling and compelled obedience, the senate had recourse to a wise expedient; this was, to give a regular pay to the troops. To defray this expense a moderate tax was imposed in proportion to the fortunes of the citizens. From this period the Roman system of war assumed a new aspect. The senate always found soldiers at command; the army was under its control; the enterprises of the republic were more extensive, and its successes more signal and important. Veii, the proud rival of Rome, and its equal in extent and population, was taken by Camillus, after a siege of ten years, A. U. C. 396. The art of war was improved, as it now became a profession, instead of an occasional occupation. The Romans were, from this circumstance, an overmatch for all their neighbours. Their dominion, hitherto confined to the territory of a few miles, was now rapidly extended. It was impossible but that the detached states of Italy must have given way before a people who were always in arms, and, by a perseverance alike resolute and judicious, were equal to every attempt in which they engaged.

4. The taking of Veii was succeeded by a war with the Gauls. This people, a branch of the great nation of the Celtæ, had opened to themselves a passage through the Alps at four different periods, and were at this time established in the country between those mountains and the Appenines. Under the command of Brennus they laid siege to the Etruscan Clusium; and the people, of no warlike turn themselves, solicited the aid of the Romans. The circumstances recorded of this war with the Gauls throw over it a cloud of fable and romance. The formidable power of Rome is said to have been, in a single campaign, so utterly exhausted, that the Gauls entered the city without resistance, and burnt it to the ground, 385 A. C. Though thus overpowered, the Romans, in a single engagement, retrieve all their losses, and in one day's time there is not a Gaul left remaining within the Roman territory.

To the burning of the city by the Gauls, the Roman writers attribute the loss of all the records and monuments of their early history.

5. It is singular, that most of the Roman revolutions should have owed their origin to women. From this cause we have seen spring the abolition of the regal office and the decemvirate. From this cause arose the change of the constitution, by which the plebeians became capable of holding the highest offices of the commonwealth. The younger daughter of Fabius Ambustus, married to a plebeian, envious of the honours of her elder sister, the wife of a patrician, stimulated her father to rouse the lower order to a resolute purpose of asserting their equal right with the patricians to all the offices and dignities of the state. After much turbulence and contest the final issue was the admission of the plebeians, first to the consulate, and afterwards to the censorship, the prætorship, and priesthood (A. U. C. 454, and A. C. 300). a change beneficial in the main, as consolidating the strength of the republic, and cutting off the principal source of intestine disorder. The factions of the state had hitherto confined the growth of its power, its splendour, and prosperity; for no state can at once be prosperous and anarchical. We shall now mark the rapid elevation of the Roman name and empire.

SECTION XXIX.

CONQUEST OF ITALY BY THE ROMANS.

1. The war with the Samnites now began, and was of long continuance; but its successful termination was speedily followed by the reduction of all the states of Italy. In the course of this important war the Tarentines, the allies of the Samnites, sought the aid of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, one of the greatest generals of his age. Pyrrhus landed in Italy with 30,000 men and a train of elephants, 280 A. C. He was at first successful, but no longer so than till a short experience reconciled the Romans to a new mode of war. Sensible at length of the difficulties of his enterprise, and dreading a fatal issue, he embraced an invitation from the Sicilians to aid them in a war with Carthage. On this pretext, which at least was not dishonourable, Pyrrhus withdrew his troops from Italy. In this interval the Romans reduced to extremity the Samnites, the Tarentines, and the other allied states. Pyrrhus returned, and made a last effort near Beneventum. He was totally defeated, lost 26,000 men, and abandoning at once all further views to Italy, returned with precipitation

to his own dominions, 274 A. C. The hostile states submitted to the victorious power; and Rome, 480 years from the foundation of the city, was now mistress of all Italy.

2. The policy observed by the Romans, with respect to the conquered nations, was wise and judicious. They removed to Rome all the leading men of the principal conquered cities, admitting them into the ancient urban and rustic tribes, and thus soothing the pride of the vanquished, by giving them an apparent share in their own domestic government; while, in arranging the constitution of the cities, they filled their magistracies with illustrious Romans, whose abilities and influence were fitted to maintain those new provinces in allegiance to the Roman government.

3. Sicily had long been considered the granary of Italy. The Carthaginians at this time possessed considerable settlements in the island, and were ambitious of acquiring its entire dominion. An obvious policy led the Romans to dispute with them this important acquisition, and gave rise to the Punic wars. This leads, by a natural connexion, to a short view of the history of Carthage and of Sicily.

SECTION XXX.

HISTORY OF CARTHAGE.

1. Carthage, according to the most probable accounts, was founded by a colony of Tyrians, about seventy years before the building of Rome. The colony had the same language, the same or nearly similar laws and constitution, the same national character, with the parent state. The city of Carthage was, at the period of the Punic wars, one of the most splendid in the world, and had under its dominion 300 of the smaller cities of Africa bordering on the Mediterranean sea.

2. The constitution of the republic is celebrated by Aristotle as one of the most perfect of the governments of antiquity; but we know little more than its general nature from ancient writers. Two magistrates, named *suffetes*, annually chosen, seem to have possessed powers akin to those of the Roman consuls; and the Carthaginian senate to those of the senate of Rome; with this remarkable difference, that, in the former, unanimity of opinion was requisite in all measures of importance. A divided senate transmitted the business to the assembly of the people. A tribunal of 104 judges took cognizance of military operations, and of the conduct of their generals. A superior council of five seems to have controled the decisions of the larger tribunal. Two peculiarities of the Carthaginian policy have been censured by Aristotle. One peculiarity was, that the same person might hold several employments or offices in the state; the other that the poor were debarred from all offices of trust or importance. But the former of these is frequently both expedient and necessary, and the latter seems agreeable to the soundest policy; for in offices of trust poverty offers too powerful an incitement to deviation from duty.

3. The first settlements made by the Carthaginians were entirely in the way of commerce. Trading to the coast of Spain for gold, they built Carthagena and Gades: and coasting along the western shore of Africa, they had establishments for the same purpose as far as the 25th degree of north latitude. The *Periplus* of Hanno affords

a proof of ardent enterprise and policy. Desirous of extending a limited territory they armed against the Mauritanians, Numidians, and all the neighbouring nations; employing mercenary troops, which they levied, not only in Africa, but in Spain, the two Gauls, and Greece.

4. The annals of the Carthaginian state are little known till their wars with the Romans. The first of their wars mentioned in history is that with the Greek colonies of Sicily. Darius courted their alliance when he meditated the conquest of Greece; and Xerxes renewed that treaty when he followed out the designs of his father.

SECTION XXXI.

HISTORY OF SICILY.

1. The early periods of the history of Sicily are as little known as those of Carthage. The Phœnicians had sent colonies to Sicily before the Trojan war. The Greeks, in after times, made considerable settlements in the island. The Corinthians founded Syracuse, which became the most illustrious of the Greek cities of Sicily; and from Syracuse arose afterwards Agrigentum, Acra, Casmene, Camarene, and several other Sicilian towns.

2. The government of Syracuse was monarchical, and might have long remained so, if all its sovereigns had inherited the abilities and virtues of Gelon. But his successors, exercising the worst of tyranny, compelled their subjects at length to abolish the regal government; and their example was speedily followed by all the Grecian states of Sicily.

3. The monarchy of Syracuse, however, was revived about sixty years after in the person of Dionysius, a man of obscure origin, but of signal ability. Twice expelled for a tyrannical exercise of dominion, he as often found means to overpower his enemies, and re-establish himself in the throne. At his death the crown passed, without opposition, to his son, Dionysius the younger, a weak and capricious tyrant, whom his subjects judging unworthy to reign, dethroned and banished, 357 A. C. The crown was conferred on Dion, his brother-in-law, whose amiable character rendered him the delight of his people. But after a short reign this prince fell a victim to treason. Aided by the distractions of Syracuse consequent on this event, Dionysius remounted the throne ten years after his expulsion; but his tyrannical disposition, heightened by his misfortunes, became at length so intolerable, that he was expelled a second time, and banished to Corinth, where he ended his days in poverty and obscurity. The author of this revolution was the illustrious Timoleon, to whose abilities and virtues his country owed equally its liberty and its subsequent happiness and prosperity, 343 A. C.

The signal opposition of national character between the Romans and the Carthaginians may be easily explained, when we attend to the effects of a commercial life on the genius and manners of a nation. The vices of a commercial people are selfishness, cunning, avarice, with an absence of every heroic and patriotic virtue. The favourable effects of commerce are industry, frugality, general courtesy of manners, improvement in the useful arts. Attending to these conse-

qences of the prevalence of the commercial spirit, we shall see the principal features of the Carthaginian character opposed to the Roman.

SECTION XXXII.

THE PUNIC WARS.

1. The triumph which the Romans had obtained over Pyrrhus seemed to give assurance of success in any enterprise in which they should engage. The Mamertines, a people of Campania, obtained aid from the Romans in an unjustifiable attempt which they made to seize Messina, a Sicilian town allied to Syracuse. The Syracusans, at first assisted by the Carthaginians, opposed this invasion; but the former, more alarmed by the ambitious encroachments of the Carthaginians on Sicily, soon repented of this rash alliance, and joined the Romans in the purpose of expelling the Carthaginians entirely from the island. In fact the Sicilians seem to have had only the desperate choice of final submission either to Rome or Carthage. They chose the former, as the alternative least dishonourable. The Romans had ever been their friends, the Carthaginians their enemies.

2. Agrigentum, possessed by the Carthaginians, was taken, after a long siege, by the joint forces of Rome and Syracuse. A Roman fleet, the first which they ever had, was equipped in a few weeks, and gained a complete victory over that of Carthage, at this time the greatest maritime power in the world, 260 A. C. These successes were followed by the reduction of Corsica and Sardinia. In a second naval engagement the Romans took from the Carthaginians sixty of their ships of war, and now resolutely prepared for the invasion of Africa. The consul Regulus commanded the expedition. He advanced to the gates of Carthage; and such was the general consternation that the enemy proposed a capitulation. Inspirited, however, by a timely aid of Greek troops under Xantippus, the Carthaginians made a desperate effort, and, defeating the Roman army, made Regulus their prisoner. But, repeatedly defeated in Sicily, they were at length seriously desirous of a peace; and the Roman general was sent with their ambassadors to Rome to aid the negotiation, under a solemn oath to return to Carthage as a prisoner, if the treaty should fail. It was rejected at the urgent desire of Regulus, who thus sacrificed his life to what he judged the interest of his country.

3. Lilybæum, the strongest of the Sicilian towns belonging to Carthage, was taken after a siege of nine years. After some alternate successes two naval battles won by the Romans terminated the war, and Carthage at last obtained a peace on the humiliating terms of abandoning to the Romans all her possessions in Sicily, the payment of 3,200 talents of silver, the restitution of all prisoners without ransom, and a solemn engagement never to make war against Syracuse or her allies. The island of Sicily was now declared a Roman province, though Syracuse maintained its independent government, A. U. C. 511, and A. C. 241.

4. The peace between Rome and Carthage was of twenty-three years' duration. The latter power was recruiting its strength, and meditated to revenge its losses and disgrace. The second Punic war began on the part of the Carthaginians, who besieged Saguntum, a city of Spain, in alliance with the Romans. The young Hannibal

took Saguntum after a siege of seven months; the desperate inhabitants setting fire to the town, and perishing amidst the flames. Hannibal now formed the bold design of carrying the war into Italy. He provided against every difficulty, gained to his interest a part of the Gallic tribes, passed the Pyrenees, and finally the Alps,* in a toilsome march of five months and a half from his leaving Carthagena; and arrived in Italy with 20,000 foot and 6,000 horse.

5. In the first engagement the Romans were defeated. They also lost two other important battles at Trebia, and the lake Thrasymenus. In the latter of these the consul Flaminius was killed, and his army cut to pieces. Hannibal advanced to Cannæ in Apulia, where the Romans opposed him with their whole force. A memorable defeat ensued, in which 40,000 Romans were left dead upon the field, and among these the consul Æmilius, and almost the whole body of the knights. If Hannibal had taken advantage of this great victory, by instantly attacking Rome, the fate of the republic was inevitable; but he deliberated, and the occasion was lost. The Romans concentrated all their strength. Even the slaves armed in the common cause, and victory once more attended the standards of the republic. Philip, king of Macedon, joined his forces to the Carthaginians, but, defeated by Levinus, speedily withdrew his assistance. Hannibal retreated before the brave Marcellus. Syracuse had now taken part with Carthage, and thus paved the way for the loss of its own liberty. Marcellus besieged the city, which was long defended by the inventive genius of Archimedes; but was taken in the third year by escalade in the night. This event put an end to the kingdom of Syracuse, which now became a part of the Roman province of Sicily, A. U. C. 542, A. C. 212.

6. While the war in Italy was prosperously conducted by the great Fabius, who, by constantly avoiding a general engagement, found the true method of weakening his enemy, the younger Scipio accomplished the entire reduction of Spain. Asdrubal was sent into Italy to the aid of his brother Hannibal, but was defeated by the consul Claudius, and slain in battle. Scipio, triumphant in Spain, passed over into Africa, and carried havoc and devastation to the gates of Carthage. Alarmed for the fate of their empire the Carthaginians hastily recalled Hannibal from Italy. The battle of Zama decided the fate of the war, by the utter defeat of the Carthaginians. They entreated a peace, which the Romans gave on these conditions: that the Carthaginians should abandon Spain, Sicily, and all the islands; surrender all their prisoners, give up the whole of their fleet except ten gallies, pay 10,000 talents, and, in future, undertake no war without consent of the Romans, A. U. C. 552, A. C. 202.

7. Every thing now concurred to swell the pride of the conquerors, and to extend their dominion. A war with Philip of Macedon was terminated by his defeat; and his son Demetrius was sent to Rome as a hostage for the payment of a heavy tribute imposed on the vanquished. A war with Antiochus, king of Syria, ended in his ceding to the Romans the whole of the Lesser Asia. But these splendid conquests, while they enlarged the empire, were fatal to its

* The passage of Hannibal over the Alps has been lately illustrated, in a most learned and ingenious essay, by Mr. Whitaker (the celebrated historian of Manchester, and vindicator of Queen Mary), who has, with great acuteness, traced every step of the Carthaginian general, from his crossing the Rhone to his final arrival in Italy.

virtues, and subversive of the pure and venerable simplicity of ancient times.

8. The third Punic war began A. U. C. 605, A. C. 149, and ended in the ruin of Carthage. An unsuccessful war with the Numidians had reduced the Carthaginians to great weakness, and the Romans meanly laid hold of that opportunity to invade Africa. Conscious of their utter inability to resist this formidable power, the Carthaginians offered every submission, and consented even to acknowledge themselves the subjects of Rome. The Romans demanded 300 hostages, for the strict performance of every condition that should be enjoined by the senate. The hostages were given, and the condition required was, that Carthage itself should be razed to its foundation. Despair gave courage to this miserable people, and they determined to die in the defence of their native city. But the noble effort was in vain. Carthage was taken by storm, its inhabitants massacred, and the city burnt to the ground, A. U. C. 607, A. C. 146.

9. The same year was signalized by the entire reduction of Greece under the dominion of the Romans. This was the æra of the dawn of luxury and taste at Rome, the natural fruit of foreign wealth, and an acquaintance with foreign manners. In the unequal distribution of this imported wealth, the vices to which it gave rise, the corruption and venality of which it became the instrument, we see the remoter causes of those fatal disorders to which the republic owed its dissolution.

SECTION XXXIII.

THE GRACCHI, AND THE CORRUPTION OF THE COMMONWEALTH.

1. At this period arose Tiberius and Caius Gracchus, two noble youths, whose zeal to reform the growing corruptions of the state, precipitated them at length into measures destructive of all government and social order. Tiberius, the elder of the brothers, urged the people to assert by force the revival of an ancient law, for limiting property in land, and thus abridging the overgrown estates of the patricians. A tumult was the consequence, in which Tiberius, with 300 of his friends, were killed in the forum. This fatal example did not deter his brother, Caius Gracchus, from pursuing a similar career of zeal or of ambition. After some successful experiments of his power, while in the office of tribune, he directed his scrutiny into the corruptions of the senate, and prevailed in depriving that body of its constitutional control over all the inferior magistrates of the state. Employing, like his brother, the dangerous engine of tumultuary force, he fell a victim to it himself, with 3,000 of his partisans, who were slaughtered in the streets of Rome. The tumults attending the sedition of the Gracchi were the prelude to those civil disorders which now followed in quick succession to the end of the commonwealth.

2. The circumstances attending the war with Jugurtha gave decisive proof of the corruption of the Roman manners. Jugurtha, grandson of Masinissa, sought to usurp the crown of Numidia by destroying his cousins, Hiempsal and Adherbal, the sons of the last king. He murdered the elder of the brothers; and the younger applying for aid to Rome, Jugurtha bribed the senate, who declared him innocent of all culpable act or design, and decreed to him the

sovereignty of half the kingdom. This operated only as an incentive to his criminal ambition. He declared open war against his cousin, besieged him in his capital of Cirta, and finally put him to death. To avert a threatened war Jugurtha went in person to Rome, pleaded his own cause in the senate, and once more by bribery secured his acquittal from all charge of criminality. A perseverance, however, in a similar train of conduct finally drew on him the vengeance of the Romans; and being betrayed into their hands by his own father-in-law, he was brought in chains to Rome, to grace the triumph of the consul Marius, confined to a dungeon, and starved to death, A. U. C. 651, A. C. 103.

3. The ambition of the allied states of Italy to attain the rights of citizenship produced the social war, which ended in a concession of those rights to such of the confederates as should return peaceably to their allegiance. This war with the allies was a prelude to that which followed between Rome and her own citizens. Sylla and Marius, rivals, and thence enemies, were at this time the leaders of the republic. Sylla, commanding in a war against Mithridates, was superseded, and recalled from Asia. He refused to obey the mandate, and found his army well disposed to support him. "Let us march to Rome," said they, with one voice; "lead us on to avenge the cause of oppressed liberty." Sylla accordingly led them on, and they entered Rome sword in hand. Marius and his partizans fled with precipitation from the city, and Sylla ruled for a while triumphant. But the faction of his rival soon recovered strength. Marius returning to Italy, and joining his forces to those of Cinna, his zealous partizan, laid siege to Rome, and, while Sylla was engaged in the Mithridatic war, compelled the city to absolute submission. After a horrible massacre of all whom they esteemed their enemies, Marius and Cinna proclaimed themselves consuls, without the formality of an election; but Marius died a few days after in a fit of debauch.

4. After a victorious campaign in Asia, Sylla returned to Italy, and, joined by Cethegus, Verres, and the young Pompey, gave battle to the party of his enemies, and entirely defeated them. His entry into Rome was signalized by a dreadful massacre, and a proscription, which had for its object the extermination of every enemy whom he had in Italy. Elected dictator for an unlimited period, he was now without a rival in authority, and absolute master of the government, which, of course, was no longer a republic. In the exercise of his dominion he deserved more praise than in the means of acquiring it. He restored the senate to its judicial authority, regulated the election to all the important offices of state, and enacted many excellent laws against oppression and the abuse of power. Finally, he gave demonstration, if not of a pure conscience, at least of a magnanimous intrepidity of character, by voluntarily resigning all command, retiring to the condition of a private citizen, and offering publicly to give an account of his conduct. He died within a short time after his resignation. He was certainly a man of great strength of mind, and had some of the qualities of a heroic character; but he lived in evil times, when it was impossible at once to be great and to be virtuous.

5. The death of Sylla renewed the civil war. Lepidus, a man of no abilities, aspired to succeed him in power; and Pompey, with superior talents, cherished the same ambition. While the latter was employed in the reduction of the revolted provinces of Asia, the

conspiracy of Catiline threatened the entire destruction of Rome. It was extinguished by the provident zeal and active patriotism of the consul Cicero. Catiline and his chief accomplices were attacked in the field, and defeated by Antonius. The traitor made a desperate defence, and died a better death than his crimes had merited.

6. Julius Cæsar now rose into public notice. Sylla dreaded his abilities and ambition, and had numbered him among the proscribed. "There is many a Marius," said he, "in the person of that young man." He had learned prudence from the danger of his situation, and tacitly courted popularity, without that show of enterprise which gives alarm to a rival. While Pompey and Crassus contended for the command of the republic, Cæsar, who knew that, by attaching himself to either rival, he infallibly made the other his enemy, showed the reach of his talents by reconciling them, and thus acquiring the friendship of both. From favour to their mutual friend they agreed to a partition of power; and thus was formed the first triumvirate. Cæsar was elected consul. He increased his popularity by a division of lands among the poorer citizens, and strengthened his interest with Pompey by giving him his daughter in marriage. He had the command of four legions, and the government of transalpine Gaul and Illyria.

7. The military glory of the republic, and the reputation of Cæsar, were nobly sustained in Gaul. In the first year of his government he subdued the Helvetii, who, leaving their own country, had attempted to settle themselves in the better regions of the Roman province. He totally defeated the Germans under Ariovistus, who had attempted a similar invasion. The Belgæ, the Nervii, the Celtic Gauls, the Suevi, Menapii, and other warlike nations, were all successively brought under subjection. In the fourth year of his government he transported his army into Britain. Landing at Deal, he was opposed by the natives with equal courage and military skill. He gained, however, several advantages, and, binding the Britons to submission, withdrew into Gaul on the approach of winter. He returned in the following summer with a greater force, and, prosecuting his victories, reduced a considerable portion of the island under the Roman dominion, A. C. 54. But the pressure of affairs in Italy suspended for a time the progress of the Roman arms in Britain.

8. Cæsar dreaded the abilities of Cicero, who had opposed him in his views of ambition. By the machinations of his partizans, while he was absent in Gaul, he procured the banishment of Cicero, and the confiscation of his estates, on the pretence of illegal measures pursued in the suppression of the conspiracy of Catiline. During an exile of sixteen months in Greece, Cicero gave way to a despondency of mind utterly unworthy of the philosopher. Pompey had abandoned him, and this ungrateful desertion bore most heavily upon his mind. In the wane of his reputation Pompey soon became desirous to prop his own sinking fortunes by the abilities of Cicero, and eagerly promoted his recal from exile. The death of Crassus, in an expedition against the Parthians, now dissolved the triumvirate; and Cæsar and Pompey, whose union had no other bond than interest, began each to conceive separately the view of undivided dominion.

SECTION XXXIV.

PROGRESS OF THE CIVIL WARS. SECOND TRIUMVIRATE. FALL OF THE REPUBLIC.

1. The ambition of Cæsar and of Pompey had now evidently the same object; and it seemed to be the only question, in those degenerate times, to which of these aspiring leaders the republic should surrender its liberties. The term of Cæsar's government was near expiring. To secure himself against a deprivation of power, he procured a proposal to be made in the senate by one of his partizans, which wore the appearance of great moderation, namely, that Cæsar and Pompey should either both continue in their governments, or both be deprived of them, as they were equally capable of endangering the public liberty by an abuse of power. The motion passed, and Cæsar immediately offered to resign, on condition that his rival should do so; but Pompey rejected the accommodation. The term of his government had yet several years' duration, and he suspected the proposal to be a snare laid for him by Cæsar. He resolved to maintain his right by force of arms, and a civil war was the necessary consequence. The consuls and a great part of the senate were the friends of Pompey. Cæsar had on his side a victorious army, consisting of ten legions, and the body of the Roman citizens, whom he had won by his liberality. Mark Antony and Cassius, at that time tribunes of the people, left Rome, and repaired to Cæsar's camp.

2. The senate, apprehensive of his designs, pronounced a decree, branding with the crime of parricide any commander who should dare to pass the Rubicon (the boundary between Italy and the Gauls) with a single cohort, without their permission. Cæsar infringed the prohibition, and marched straight to Rome.—Pompey, to whom the senate committed the defence of the state, had no army. He quitted Rome, followed by the consuls and a part of the senate, and endeavoured hastily to levy troops over all Italy and Greece; while Cæsar triumphantly entered the city amidst the acclamations of the people, seized the public treasury, and possessed himself of the supreme authority without opposition. Having secured the capital of the empire, he set out to take the field against her enemies. The lieutenants of Pompey had possession of Spain. Cæsar marched thither, and subdued the whole country in the space of forty days. He returned victorious to Rome, where, in his absence, he had been nominated dictator. In the succeeding election of magistrates he was chosen consul, and was thus invested, by a double title, with the right of acting in the name of the republic. Pompey had by this time raised a numerous army, and Cæsar was anxious to bring him to a decisive engagement. The two armies met in Illyria, and the first conflict was of doubtful issue. Cæsar led his army into Macedonia, where he found a large reinforcement. He gave battle to Pompey in the field of Pharsalia, and entirely defeated him. Fifteen thousand of Pompey's army were slain, and 24,000 surrendered themselves prisoners to the victor, A. U. C. 705, A. C. 49.

3. The fate of Pompey was miserable in the extreme. With his wife Cornelia, the companion of his misfortunes, he fled to Egypt in

a single ship, trusting to the protection of Ptolemy, whose father had owed to him his settlement on the throne. But the ministers of this young prince, dreading the power of Cæsar, basely courted his favour by the murder of his rival. Pompey was brought ashore in a small boat by the guards of the king; and a Roman centurion, who had fought under his banners, stabbed him, even in the sight of Cornelia, and cutting off his head, threw the body naked on the sands. Cæsar pursued Pompey to Alexandria, where the head of that unhappy man, presented as a grateful offering, gave him the first intelligence of his fate. He wept, and turned with horror from the sight. He caused every honour to be paid to his memory, and from that time showed the utmost beneficence to the partizans of his unfortunate rival.

4. The sovereignty of Egypt was in dispute between Ptolemy and his sister Cleopatra. The latter, though married to her brother, and joint heir by her father's will, was ambitious of undivided authority; and Cæsar, captivated by her charms, decided the contest in favour of the beauteous queen. A war ensued, in which Ptolemy was killed, and Egypt subdued by the Roman arms. In this war the famous library of Alexandria was burnt to ashes, A. C. 48. A revolt of the Asiatic provinces, under Pharnaces, the son of Mithridates, was signally chastised; and the report was conveyed by Cæsar to the Roman senate in three words, *Veni, vidi, vici.* The conqueror returned to Rome, which needed his presence; for Italy was divided, and the partizans of Pompey were yet extremely formidable. His two sons, with Cato and Scipio, were in arms in Africa. Cæsar pursued them thither, and proceeding with caution till secure of his advantage, defeated them in a decisive engagement at Thapsus. Scipio perished in his passage to Spain. Cato, shutting himself up in Utica, meditated a brave resistance; but seeing no hope of success, he finally determined not to survive the liberties of his country, and fell deliberately by his own hand. Mauritania was now added to the number of the Roman provinces; and Cæsar returned to Rome, absolute master of the empire.

5. From that moment his attention was directed solely to the prosperity and happiness of the Roman people. He remembered no longer that there had been opposite parties; beneficent alike to the friends of Pompey as to his own. He laboured to reform every species of abuse or grievance. He introduced order into every department of the state, defining the separate rights of all its magistrates, and extending his care to the regulation of its most distant provinces. The reformation of the kalendar, the draining of the marshes of Italy, the navigation of the Tiber, the embellishment of Rome, the complete survey and delineation of the empire, alternately employed his liberal and capacious mind. Returning from the final overthrow of Pompey's party in Spain, he was hailed the father of his country, was created consul for ten years, and perpetual dictator. His person was declared sacred, his title henceforth *imperator*, A. U. C. 709, A. C. 45.

6. The Roman republic had thus finally resigned its liberties, by its own acts. They were not extinguished, as Montesquieu has well remarked, by the ambition of a Pompey or of a Cæsar. If the sentiments of Cæsar and Pompey had been the same with those of Cato, others would have had the same ambitious thoughts; and, since the commonwealth was fated to fall, there never would have been wanting a hand to drag it to destruction. Yet Cæsar had by

force subdued his country; and therefore was a usurper. If it had been possible to restore the liberties of the republic, and with these its happiness, by the suppression of his usurpation, the attempt would have merited the praise at least of good design. Perhaps so thought his murderers; and thus, however weak their policy, however base and treacherous their act, they will ever find apologists. They expected an impossible issue, as the event demonstrated.

7. A conspiracy was formed by sixty of the senators, at the head of whom were Brutus and Cassius; the former a man beloved of Cæsar, who had saved his life, and heaped upon him numberless benefits. It was rumoured that the dictator wished to add to his numerous titles that of king, and that the ides of March was fixed on for investing him with the diadem. On that day, when taking his seat in the senate-house, he was suddenly assailed by the conspirators. He defended himself for some time against their daggers, till, seeing Brutus among the number, he faintly exclaimed, "And you, too, my son!" and covering his face with his robe, resigned himself to his fate. He fell, pierced by twenty-three wounds, A. U. C. 711, and A. C. 43.

8. The Roman people were struck with horror at the deed. They loved Cæsar, master as he was of their lives and liberties. Mark Antony and Lepidus, ambitious of succeeding to the power of the dictator, resolved to pave the way by avenging his death. Cæsar, by his testament, had bequeathed a great part of his fortune to the people; and they were penetrated with gratitude to his memory. A public harangue by Antony over the bleeding body, exposed in the forum, inflamed them with the utmost indignation against his murderers, who must have met with instant destruction if they had not escaped with precipitation from the city. Antony profited by these dispositions; and the avenger of Cæsar, of course the favourite of the people, was in the immediate prospect of attaining a similar height of dominion. In this, however, he found a formidable competitor in Octavius, the grand-nephew and the adopted heir of Cæsar, who, at this critical moment, arrived in Rome. Availing himself of these titles, Octavius gained the senate to his interest, and divided with Antony the favour of the people. The rivals soon perceived that it was their wisest plan to unite their interests; and they admitted Lepidus into their association, whose power, as governor of Gaul, and immense riches, gave him a title to a share of authority. Thus was formed the second triumvirate, the effects of whose union were beyond measure dreadful to the republic. The triumviri divided among themselves the provinces, and cemented their union by a deliberate sacrifice made by each of his best friends to the vengeance of his associates. Antony consigned to death his uncle Lucius; Lepidus his brother Paulus; and Octavius his guardian Toranius and his friend Cicero. In this horrible proscription 300 senators and 3,000 knights were put to death.

9. Octavius and Antony now marched against the conspirators, who had a formidable army in the field in Thrace, commanded by Brutus and Cassius. An engagement ensued at Philippi, which decided the fate of the empire. Antony obtained the victory, for Octavius had no military talents. He was destitute even of personal bravery, and his conduct after the victory was stained with that cruelty which is ever the attendant of cowardice. Brutus and Cassius escaped the vengeance of their enemies by a voluntary death. Antony now sought a recompense for his troops by the plunder of the east.

While in Cilicia, he summoned Cleopatra to answer for her conduct in dethroning an infant brother, and in openly favouring the party of Brutus and Cassius. The queen came to Tarsus, and made a complete conquest of the triumvir. Immersed in luxury, and intoxicated with love, he forgot glory, ambition, fame, and every thing, for Cleopatra. Octavius saw this phrensy with delight, as the preparative of his rival's ruin. He had nothing to dread from Lepidus, whose insignificant character first drew on him the contempt of his partizans; and whose folly, in attempting an invasion of the province of his colleague, was punished by his deposition and banishment.

10. Antony had in his madness lavished the provinces of the empire in gifts to his paramour and her children. The Roman people were justly indignant at these enormities; and the divorce of his wife Octavia, the sister of his colleague, was at length the signal of declared hostility between them. An immense armament, chiefly naval, came at length to a decisive conflict near Actium, on the coast of Epirus. Cleopatra, who attended her lover, deserted him with her galleys in the heat of the engagement; and such was the infatuation of Antony, that he abandoned his fleet, and followed her. After a contest of some hours, they yielded to the squadron of Octavius, A. U. C. 723, A. C. 31. The victor pursued the fugitives to Egypt; and the base Cleopatra proffered terms to Octavius, including the surrender of her kingdom, and the abandonment of Antony After an unsuccessful attempt at resistance, Antony anticipated his fate by falling on his sword. Cleopatra soon after, either from remorse, or more probably from mortified ambition, as she found it was Octavius's design to lead her in chains to Rome to grace his triumph, had courage to follow the example of her lover, and put herself to death by the poison of an asp. Octavius returned to Rome sole master of the Roman empire, A. U. C. 727, A. C. 27.

SECTION XXXV.

CONSIDERATIONS OF SUCH PARTICULARS AS MARK THE GENIUS AND NATIONAL CHARACTER OF THE ROMANS.

SYSTEM OF ROMAN EDUCATION.

1. A VIRTUOUS but rigid severity of manners was the characteristic of the Romans under their kings, and in the first ages of the republic. The private life of the citizens, frugal, temperate, and laborious, had its influence on their public character. The (*patria potestas*) *paternal authority* gave to every head of a family a sovereign authority over all the members that composed it; and this power, felt as a right of nature, was never abused. Plutarch has remarked, as a defect in the Roman laws, that they did not prescribe, as those of Lacedæmon, a system and rules for the education of youth. But the truth is, the manners of the people supplied this want. The utmost attention was bestowed in the early formation of the mind and character. The excellent author of the dialogue *De Oratoribus* (*concerning orators*) presents a valuable picture of the Roman education in the early ages of the commonwealth, contrasted with the less virtuous practice of the more refined ages. The Roman matrons did not abandon their infants to mercenary nurses. They regarded the careful nurture of their offspring, the rudiments of their education,

and the necessary occupations of their household, as the highest points of female merit. Next to the care bestowed in the instilment of virtuous morals, a remarkable degree of attention seems to have been given to the language of children, and to the attainment of a correctness and purity of expression. Cicero informs us that the *Gracchi*, the sons of Cornelia, were educated, *non tam in grœmio quam in sermone matris, in the speech more than in the bosom of their mother.* That urbanity which characterized the Roman citizens showed itself particularly in their speech and gesture.

2. The attention to the language of the youth had another source. It was by eloquence, more than by any other talent, that the young Roman could rise to the highest offices and dignities of the state. The *studia forensia* (*forensic studies*) were, therefore, a principal object of the Roman education. Plutarch informs us, that among the sports of the children at Rome, one was pleading causes before a mock tribunal, and accusing and defending a criminal in the usual forms of judicial procedure.

3. The exercises of the body were likewise particularly attended to; whatever might harden the temperament, and confer strength and agility. These exercises were daily practised by the youth, under the eye of their elders, in the Campus Martius.

4. At seventeen the youth assumed the manly robe. He was consigned to the care of a master of rhetoric, whom he attended constantly to the forum, or to the courts of justice; for, to be an accomplished gentleman, it was necessary for a Roman to be an accomplished orator. The pains bestowed on the attainment of this character, and the best instructions for its acquisition, we learn from the writings of Cicero, Quintilian, and the younger Pliny.

SECTION XXXVI.

OF THE PROGRESS OF LITERATURE AMONG THE ROMANS.

1. Before the intercourse with Greece, which took place after the Punic wars, the Roman people was utterly rude and illiterate. As among all nations the first appearance of the literary spirit is shown in poetical composition, the Roman warrior had probably, like the Indian or the Celtic, his war songs, which celebrated his triumphs in battle. Religion likewise employs the earliest poetry of most nations; and if a people subsist by agriculture, a plentiful harvest is celebrated in the rustic song of the husbandman. The *versus fescennini* (*fescennine verses*), mentioned by Livy, were probably of the nature of a poetical dialogue, or alternate verses sung by the labourers, in a strain of coarse merriment and raillery. This shows a dawning of the drama.

2. About the 390th year of Rome, on occasion of a pestilence, *ludiones* (drolls or stage dancers) were brought from Etruria, *qui ad tibicinis modos saltantes, haud indecoros motus more Tusco dabant; who danced to the tunes of a musician, and, in the Tuscan fashion, exhibited motions that were not ungraceful.* Livy tells us that the Roman youth imitated these performances, and added to them rude and jocular verses, probably the fescennine dialogues. The regular drama was introduced at Rome from Greece by Livius Andronicus, A. U. C.

514. The earliest Roman plays were therefore, we may presume, translations from the Greek.

> Et post punica bella quietus quærere cœpit,
> Quid Sophocles, et Thespis, et Æschylus utile ferrent.
> Hor. Epist. Lib. II, i.

And being at peace after the Punic wars, the Romans began to inquire what advantages might be derived from the writings of Sophocles, Thespis, and Æschylus.

3. Of the early Roman drama, Ennius was a great ornament, and from his time the art made rapid advancement. The comedies of Plautus, the contemporary of Ennius, with great strength and spirit of dialogue, display a considerable knowledge of human nature, and are read at this day with pleasure.

4. Cæcilius improved so much on the comedy of Plautus, that he is mentioned by Cicero as perhaps the best of the Roman comic writers. Of his compositions we have no remains. His patronage fostered the rising genius of Terence, whose first comedy, the *Andria*, was performed A. U. C. 587. The merit of the comedies of Terence lies in that nature and simplicity which are observable in the structure of his fables, and in the delineation of his characters. They are deficient, however, in comic energy; and are not calculated to excite ludicrous emotions. They are chiefly borrowed from the Greek of Menander and Apollodorus.

5. The Roman comedy was of four different species: the *comedia togata* or *prætextata*, the *comœdia tabernaria*, the *atellanæ*, and the *mimi*. The first admitted serious scenes and personages, and was of the nature of the modern sentimental comedy. The second was a representation of ordinary life and manners. The *atellanæ* were pieces where the dialogue was not committed to writing, but the subject of the scene was prescribed, and the dialogue filled up by the talents of the actors. The *mimi* were pieces of comedy of the lowest species; farces, or entertainments of buffoonery; though sometimes admitting the serious, and even the pathetic.

6. The Roman tragedy kept pace in its advancement with the comedy. The best of the Roman tragic poets were Actius and Pacuvius, of whom we have no remains. The tragedies published under the name of Seneca are generally esteemed the work of different hands. They are none of them of superiative merit.

7. Velleius Paterculus remarks, that the æra of the perfection of Roman literature was the age of Cicero, comprehending all the literary men of the preceding times whom Cicero might have seen, and all those of the succeeding who might have seen him. Cicero, Quintilian, and Pliny celebrate, in high terms, the writings of the elder Cato, whose principal works were historical, and have entirely perished. We have his fragments, *de Re Rustica* (*on agriculture*), in which he was imitated by Varro, one of the earliest of the good writers among the Romans, and a man of universal erudition. Of the variety of his talents we may judge, not only from the splendid eulogium of Cicero, but from the circumstance of Pliny having recourse to his authority in every book of his Natural History.

8. Sallust, in order of time, comes next to Varro. This writer introduced an important improvement on history, as treated by the Greek historians, by applying (as Dionysius of Halicarnassus says)

the science of philosophy to the study of facts. Sallust is therefore to be considered as the father of philosophic history; a species of writing which has been so successfully cultivated in modern times. He is an admirable writer for the matter of his compositions, which evince great judgment and knowledge of human nature, but by no means commendable for his style and manner of writing. He affects singularity of expression, an antiquated phraseology, and a petulant brevity and sententiousness, which has nothing of the dignity of the historical style.

9. Cæsar has much more purity of style, and more correctness and simplicity of expression; but his Commentaries, wanting that amplitude of diction and fulness of illustration which is essential to history, are rather of the nature of annals.

10. In all the requisites of a historian, Livy stands unrivalled among the Romans; possessing consummate judgment in the selection of facts, perspicuity of arrangement, sagacious reflection, sound views of policy, with the most copious, pure, and eloquent expression. It has been objected, that his speeches derogate from the truth of history: but this was a prevalent taste with the ancient writers; and as those speeches are always known to be the composition of the historian, the reader is not misled. As to the style of Livy, though in general excellent, we sometimes perceive in it, and most commonly in the speeches, an affectation of the pointed sentences (the *vibrantes sententiolæ*) and obscurity of the declaimers, which evinces the pernicious influence acquired by those teachers at Rome since the time of Cicero and Sallust.

11. In the decline of Roman literature Tacitus is a historian of no common merit. He successfully cultivated the method pointed out by Sallust, of applying philosophy to history. In this he displays great knowledge of human nature, and penetrates, with singular acuteness, into the secret springs of policy, and the motives of actions. But his fault is, that he is too much of a politician, drawing his characters after the model of his own mind; ever assigning actions and events to preconceived scheme and design, and allowing too little for the operation of accidental causes, which often have the greatest influence on human affairs. Tacitus, in his style, professedly imitated that of Sallust; adopting all the ancient phraseology, as well as the new idioms introduced into the Roman language by that writer. To his brevity and abruptness he added most of the faults of the declaiming school. His expression, therefore, though extremely forcible, is often enigmatically obscure; the worst property that style can possess.

12. Among the eminent Roman poets (after the dramatic) Lucretius deserves first to be noticed. He has great inequality, being at some times verbose, rugged, and perplexed, and at others displaying all the elegance as well as the fire of poetry. This may be in great part attributed to his subject. Philosophical disquisition is unsuitable to poetry. It demands a dry precision of thought and expression, rejecting all excursive fancy and ornament of diction. That luxuriance of imagery, which is the soul of poetry, is raving and impertinence when applied to philosophy.

13. Catullus, the contemporary of Lucretius, is the earliest of the Roman lyric poets. His Epigrams are pointed and satirical, but too licentious; his Idylla tender, natural, and picturesque. He flourished in the age of Julius Cæsar.

14. In the succeeding age of Augustus, poetry attained to its high-

est elevation among the Romans. Virgil, Horace, Ovid, and Tibullus, were all contemporaries. Virgil is allowed the same rank among the Roman poets, as Homer among the Greek. If Homer excel Virgil in the sublime, the latter surpasses the former in the tender and elegant. The transcendent merits of Homer are sullied by occasional defects. Virgil is the model of a correct taste. The difference of manner in the Bucolics, the Georgics, and the Æneid, shows that Virgil was capable of excelling in various departments of poetry; and such is the opinion of Martial, who affirms that he could have surpassed Horace in lyric poetry, and Varius in tragedy.

15. Horace excels as a lyric poet, a satirist, and a critic. In his odes there is more variety than in those of either Anacreon or Pindar. He can alternately display the sublimity of the latter, and the jocose vein of the former. His Satires have that characteristic slyness and obliquity of censure, associated with humour and pleasantry, which strongly distinguish them from the stern and cutting sarcasm of Juvenal. As a critic, his rules are taken chiefly from Aristotle; but they contain the elements of a just taste in poetical composition, and therefore do not admit of variation. The Satires of Juvenal, compared with those of Horace, are deficient in facetiousness and urbanity; but they are superior in acuteness of thought, and in manly vigor of sentiment.

16. In variety of talent, without supreme excellence, and in ease and elegance of numbers, no Roman poet has exceeded Ovid. In his Metamorphoses, particularly, with great fancy, we have specimens of the pathetic, the descriptive, the eloquent, and even the sublime. His Elegies have more of nature and of real passion, than those of either Tibullus or Propertius. His amatory verses have much tenderness, but are too frequently loose, and even grossly licentious.

17. There is nothing more elegant than the compositions of Tibullus, nothing more delicate than the turn of his expression; but it is not the language of passion. The sentiments are tender, but their power of affecting the heart is weakened by the visible care and solicitude of the poet for refined phraseology and polished numbers; nor is there either much fancy or variety of thought. A single elegy exhibits the sentiments of the whole.

18. Martial is the last of the Roman poets who can be mentioned with high approbation. His Epigrams, independent of their art and ingenuity, are valuable, as throwing light upon the Roman manners. He possesses, above every other poet, a *naivete* of expression, which is chiefly observable in his serious epigrams. He is well characterized by the younger Pliny. *Ingeniosus, acer, et qui in scribendo et salis haberet et fellis, nec candoris minus.* Epist. 3. 21. *His writings are ingenious and acute; they possess humour and satire, and no less candour.*

19. Luxuriance of ornament, and the fondness for points, and brilliancy of thought and expression, are certain indications of the decline of good taste. These characters strongly mark the Latin poets of the succeeding ages. Lucan has some scattered examples of genuine poetic imagery, and Persius some happy strokes of animated satire; but they scarcely compensate the affected obscurity of one, and the bombast of the other. The succeeding poets, Statius, Silius Italicus, and Valerius Flaccus, in their attempts at the most difficult of all species of poetry, the epic, have only more signally displayed the inferiority of their genius, and the manifest decay of the art.

SECTION XXXVII.

STATE OF PHILOSOPHY AMONG THE ROMANS.

1. The Romans, in the earlier periods of the republic, had little leisure to bestow on the cultivation of the sciences, and had no idea of philosophical speculation. It was not till the end of the sixth century from the building of the city, and in the interval between the war with Perseus and the third Punic war, that philosophy made its first appearance at Rome. A few learned Achæans, banished from their country, had settled in various parts of Italy, and applying themselves to the cultivation of literature and the education of youth, diffused a taste for those studies hitherto unknown to the Romans. The elder citizens regarded those pursuits with an unfavourable eye. Jealous of the introduction of foreign manners with foreign studies, the senate banished the Greek philosophers from Rome. But an Athenian embassy, arriving soon after, brought thither Carneades and Critolaus, who revived the taste for the Greek philosophy, and left behind them many able disciples, who publicly taught their doctrines.

2. It was natural that those systems should be most generally adopted which were most suitable to the national character. While the manners of the Romans had a tincture of ancient severity, the stoical system prevailed. Scipio, Lælius, and the younger Cato rank among its chief partisans.

3. The philosophy of Aristotle was little known in Rome till the age of Cicero. At that time Cratippus and Tyrannion taught his system with great reputation. Yet Cicero complains that the peripatetic philosophy was little understood at Rome; and therefore, he sent his son to study its doctrines in the schools of Athens.

4. Lucullus, whose stay in Greece gave him an opportunity of being acquainted with all the different sects, disseminated, on his return to Rome, a very general taste for philosophy. His patronage of learned men, and his liberality in allowing his library to be open for the public use, contributed greatly to the promotion of literature.

5. The Old and New Academy had each its partisans. Of the former, which may be termed the Stoico-Platonic, the most illustrious disciples were Marcus Brutus and Terentius Varro. To the philosophical talents of Brutus, and the universal erudition of Varro, the writings of Cicero bear ample testimony. Cicero himself must be deemed the most eminent of all the Roman philosophers. He is classed among the principal supporters of the New Academy; though it seems to have been his purpose to elucidate the Greek philosophy in general, rather than to rank himself among the disciples of any particular sect.

6. The cultivation of physics, or natural philosophy, seems to have been little attended to either by the Greeks or Romans. Unless agriculture should be classed under this description, we know of no Roman authors, except Varro and the elder Pliny, who seem to have bestowed much attention on the operations of nature. The works of Varro have perished, except a few fragments. The Natural History of Pliny is a most valuable store-house of the knowledge of the ancients in physics, economics, and the arts and sciences.

It is to be regretted that the style is unsuitable to the matter, being too frequently florid, declamatory, and obscure.

7. The philosophy of Epicurus was unknown in the early ages of the Roman commonwealth. It was introduced with luxury, and kept pace in its advancement with the corruption of manners. Cineas having discoursed on the tenets of Epicurus at the table of Pyrrhus, Fabricius exclaimed, "May the enemies of Rome ever entertain such principles!" Yet these principles were, in a short time from that period, too current among the citizens of Rome.

SECTION XXXVIII.

OF THE PUBLIC AND PRIVATE MANNERS OF THE ROMANS.

1. The manners of the Romans in the early ages of the republic were so different from those of the latter times, that one should be led to suppose some very extraordinary causes to have co-operated to produce so remarkable a change; yet the transition is easy to be accounted for. A spirit of temperance, of frugality, and probity, is the characteristic of every infant establishment. A virtuous simplicity of manners, and a rigour of military discipline, paved the way for the extension of the Roman arms, and for their prodigious conquests. These conquest introduced wealth, luxury, and corruption.

2. In the early times of the republic the patricians, when in the country, forgot the distinction of ranks, and laboured in the cultivation of their fields, like the meanest plebeians. We have the examples of Cincinnatus, Curius, the elder Cato, and Scipio Africanus. The town was visited only every ninth day, which was the market day. In those times of virtuous simplicity, says Sallust, *Domi militiaque boni mores colebantur. Duabus artibus, audacia in bello, ubi pax evenerat, æquitate, seque remque publicam curabant. Good manners were cultivated both in peace and war. By two means, valour in war, and equity in peace, they supported themselves and the commonwealth.* But when the Romans had extended their dominion, in consequence of this very discipline and these manners, they imported with the wealth of the conquered nations their tastes, their manners, and their vices.

3. The Romans had no natural taste in the fine arts. On the conquest of Greece an immense field opened at once to their eyes, and the master-pieces of art poured in upon them in abundance. But they could not appreciate their excellences. The Roman luxury, as far as the arts were concerned, was in general displayed in an awkward, heavy, and tasteless magnificence.

4. The public and private life of the Romans will be best elucidated by a short account of the manner in which the day was passed at Rome, both, by the higher and lower ranks of the people. By a part of the citizens the morning hours were spent in visiting the temples, by others in attending the levees of the great. The *clientes* (clients) waited on their *patroni* (patrons); the patricians visited one another, or paid their compliments to the leaders of the republic. Popularity was always the first object of ambition at Rome, as paving the way to all advancement. From the levee they proceeded to the forum, either to assist in the public business, or for amusement. There the time was spent till noon, which was the hour of dinner among the Romans. This was chiefly a very light repast, of which it was not customary to invite any guests to partake.

After dinner the youth repaired to the Campus Martius, where they occupied themselves in athletic exercises and sports till sunset. The elder class retired for an hour to repose, and then passed the afternoon in their porticoes, galleries or libraries, where they enjoyed the conversation of their friends, or heard recitations of literary works; others repaired to the theatres, or to the shows of the circus and amphitheatre.

5. Combats of gladiators were introduced for the first time about the 400th year of the city. These and combats with wild beasts soon became a favourite amusement among the Romans. The spirit of luxury, which in general is not unfavourable to humanity, showed its progress among the Romans by an increasing ferocity and inhumanity of the public spectacles. Theatrical entertainments were in high request. (Sect. XXXVI. § 2. 3, 4, 5, 6.) The taste for pantomime came to such a height, that the art was taught in public schools, and the nobility and people were divided into parties in favour of the rival performers; an abuse which called at length for the interposition of the laws.

6. From the porticoes, or from the theatre and amphitheatre, it was customary to go to the baths, of which there were many for the use of the public. The rich had baths in their own houses, vying with each other in this as in every other article of luxury or magnificence. From the bath they went immediately to supper, generally about the ninth or tenth hour, counting from sunrise. At table they reclined on couches. The luxury of the Roman suppers far exceeded every thing known among the moderns. An *antecænium* of pickles and spices was presented to prepare and sharpen the appetite. Cookery became a science. The number and costliness of the dishes were incredible. The entertainment was heightened by every thing gratifying to the senses; by male and female dancers, musicians, pantomimes, and even shows of gladiators.

7. In the end of the republic pleasure and amusement were the darling object of all ranks of the citizens: they sought no more than *panem et circenses* (*bread and games in the circus*).

SECTION XXXIX.

OF THE ART OF WAR AMONG THE ROMANS.

1. From the prodigious success which attended the arms of the Romans, and the dominion which they acquired over the greater part of the known world, it seems a natural inference that they must have excelled all the contemporary nations in the military art. Vegetius expressly assigns their extensive conquests to that cause alone. It is the discipline of an army that makes a multitude act as one man. It likewise increases the courage of troops; for each individual confides in the steady co-operation of his fellows.

2. From the constant practice of athletic exercises, the Romans were inured from infancy to hardiness and fatigue, and bred to that species of life, which a soldier leads in the most active campaign in the field.

3. The levies were made annually, by the tribes called out, and divided into their respective number of centuries; each century presenting by rotation, as many soldiers as there were legions intended to be raised; and the tribunes of the several legions taking their turn

by rotation in the selection of the men presented by the centuries. (Sect. XXIV, § 16.) The number of soldiers in the legion was various at different periods, from 3,000 to 10,000 and 11,000.

4. Among the ancient nations there were usually two different arrangements of the troops in order of battle. One the phalanx, or close arrangement in a rectangular form, intersected only by great divisions; a disposition commonly used by the Greeks, and by most of the barbarous nations. The other the quincunx or chequer, consisting of small companies or platoons, disposed in three straight lines, with alternate spaces between the companies equal to the space occupied by each company. In the first line were the *hastati*, in the second the *principes*, and in the third the *triarii*. On the flanks of the first line were the cavalry, in detached companies; and in front of the line were the *velites*, or light-armed troops, who usually began with a skirmishing attack, and then were withdrawn, to make way for the main body to come into action. The advantages of this arrangement were, that the line of battle could be three times formed with fresh troops, and that it was more adapted than any other for rapid changes of movement. In the Roman legion, the arms of the *hastati* and *principes* were the *pilum* or heavy javelin, and the sword and buckler; and of the *triarii*, the long spear, with the sword and buckler.

5. Notwithstanding these advantages the *quincunx* went into disuse toward the end of the republic, and from that time various arrangements of the legion were used according to circumstances. The Roman tactics are supposed to have been at their greatest pitch of excellence during the Punic wars. Hannibal was a great master of the science of tactics: and the Romans profited by the experience of his ability. The battle of Cannæ, as described by Polybius, affords signal evidence of the great talents of the Carthaginian general. The description of that battle has been misrepresented by Folard; but it is accurately explained in the *Memoires Militaires* of M. Guischardt. If the quincunx disposition had been kept by the Roman army in that engagement, the event might have been very different; for it would have disappointed the effect of an artful manœuvre planned by Hannibal, on observing his enemy's army arranged in the unusual order of the phalanx.

6. The art of intrenchment was carried to perfection by the Romans, particularly by Julius Cæsar. With 60,000 men he defended himself in his intrenchments before Alexia, while the lines of circumvallation were attacked by 240,000 Gauls, and the lines of countervallation by 80,000, without effect. These intrenchments consisted of a ditch from nine to fifteen feet in depth and width, fenced on the inside by the mound of excavated earth, and on the outside by strong stakes with pointed branches.

7. In besieging a town several camps were formed round the place, joined to one another by lines of circumvallation and countervallation. A mound of earth (*agger*) was raised, beginning by a gentle slope from one of the camps, and gradually rising in elevation as it approached the city. The front, where the workmen were employed, was defended by a curtain of hides fixed on strong posts. On this mound the engines of attack, *catapultæ* and *balistæ*, were advanced, till they played on the very spot which the besiegers wished to assail. The *catapultæ* discharged heavy stones, the *balistæ* arrows. The same machines were used by the besieged for annoying the enemy. When the engines on the terrace had driven the

besieged from the walls, the battering-ram (*aries*) was then brought up under a pent-house (*testudo*); and, if it once reached the wall, was generally decisive of the fate of the town. The main object of the besieged was therefore to prevent its approach by every power of annoyance. Stones, darts, and combustible matters were continually launched upon the assailants; and sometimes a mine was dug from the city to scoop away the terrace and all its engines. These arts of attack and defence of fortified places were in general use among the nations of antiquity, and continued down to modern times, till the invention of gunpowder.

8. The naval military art was utterly unknown among the Romans till the first Punic war. A Carthaginian galley was the first model of a vessel of war. In the space of two months they equipped a fleet of 100 gallies of five banks of oars, and 20 of three banks. The structure of those gallies, and the mode of arranging the rowers, may be learned from the ancient sculptures and medals. The combatants at sea assailed at a distance with javelins, missile combustibles, and sometimes with *catapultæ* and *balistæ;* but the serious attack was made in boarding, when the vessels were grappled by means of a crane let down from the prow.

9. In the times of the empire, the Romans maintained their distant conquests, not only by their armies, but by their fleets. The ships were moored in the large rivers and bays; and both the legions and the fleets generally preserved a fixed station.

SECTION XL.

REFLECTIONS ARISING FROM A VIEW OF THE ROMAN HISTORY DURING THE COMMONWEALTH.

1. The history of all nations evinces, that there is an inseparable connexion between the morals of a people and their political prosperity. But we have no stronger demonstration of this truth than the annals of the Roman commonwealth. To limit to republics alone the necessity of virtue as a principle, is a chimerical notion, fraught with dangerous consequences. *Quid leges sine moribus vanæ proficiunt?* (*laws without morals avail nothing*) is a sentiment equally applicable to all governments; and no political system, however excellent its fabric, can possess any measure of duration, without that powerful cement, virtue, in the principles and manners of the people. (Sect. XIX, § 4.)

2. The love of our country, and the desire for its rational liberty, are noble and virtuous feelings; and their prevalence is ever a test of the integrity of the national morals. But no term has been more prostituted than the word liberty. In a corrupted people the cry for liberty is heard the loudest among the most profligate of the community. With these its meaning has no relation to patriotism; it imports no more than the aversion to restraint; and the personal character of the demagogue, and the private morals of his disciples, are always sufficient to unmask the counterfeit. The spirit of patriotism and a general corruption of manners cannot possibly be coexistent in the same age and nation.

3. On the other hand, while the morals of a people are pure, no public misfortune is irretrievable, nor any political situation so desperate, that hope may not remain of a favourable change. In such situations the spirit of patriotism pervading all ranks of the state will

soon recover the national prosperity. The history of the Roman people, and that of the Grecian states, in various crises, both of honour and of disgrace, affords proofs alike of this position and of its converse.

4. The national character of the Romans seems to have undergone its most remarkable change for the worse from the time of the destruction of their rival, Carthage. Sallust assigns the cause. *Ante Carthaginem deletam,——metus hostilis in bonis artibus civitatem retinebat. Sed ubi illa formido mentibus decessit, scilicet ea quæ secundæ res amant, lascivia atque superbia invasere. Before the destruction of Carthage,—— the fear of their enemy kept the people in the practice of virtue; but when the restraint of fear ceased to influence their conduct, they abandoned themselves to profligacy and arrogance, the usual concomitants of prosperity.*

5. In the last ages of the commonwealth, avarice and ambition, unrestrained by moral principle, were the chief motives of the Roman conquests. It was sufficient reason for going to war, that a country offered a tempting object to the rapacity and ambition of the military leaders. The conquest of Italy paved the way for the reduction of foreign nations. Hence the Romans imported, with their wealth, the manners, the luxuries, and the vices of the nations which they subdued. The generals returned not as formerly, after a successful war, to the labours of the field, and to a life of temperance and industry. They were now the governors of kingdoms and provinces; and at the period of their command abroad, disdaining the restraints of a subject, they could be satisfied with nothing less than sovereignty at home. The armies, debauched by the plunder of kingdoms, were completely disposed to support them in all their schemes of ambition; and the populace, won by corruption, always took part with the chief who best could pay for their favour and support. Force or bribery overruled every election; and the inhabitants of distant states, now holding the right of citizens, were brought to Rome, at the command of the demagogue, to influence any popular contest, and turn the scale in his favour. In a government thus irretrievably destroyed by the decay of those springs which supported it, it was of little consequence by what particular tyrant, usurper, or demagogue, its ruin was finally accomplished.

6. From a consideration of the rise and fall of the principal states of antiquity, it has been a commonly received opinion, that the constitution of empires has, like the human body, a period of growth, maturity, decline, and extinction. But arguments from analogy are extremely deceitful, and particularly so when the analogy is from physical to moral truths. The human body is, from its fabric, naturally subject to decay, and is perpetually undergoing a change from time. Its organs, at first weak, attain gradually their perfect strength, and thence, by a similar gradation, proceed to decay and dissolution. This is an immutable law of its nature. But the springs of the body politic do not necessarily undergo a perpetual change from time. It is not regularly progressive from weakness to strength, and thence to decay and dissolution; nor is it under the influence of any principle of corruption which may not be checked, and even eradicated, by wholesome laws. Thus the beginning of the corruption of Sparta is attributed to Lysander's breach of the institutions of Lycurgus, in introducing gold into the treasury of the state instead of its iron money. But was this a necessary, or an unavoidable measure? Perhaps a single vote in the senate decreed its adoption, and therefore another suffrage might have prevented, or long postponed, the downfal of the commonwealth. The Roman repub-

lic owed its dissolution to the extension of its dominions. If it had been a capital crime for any Roman citizen to have proposed to carry the arms of the republic beyond the limits of Italy, its constitution might have been preserved for many ages beyond the period of its actual duration. "Accustom your mind," said Phocion to Aristias, "to discern, in the fate of nations, that recompense which the great Author of nature has annexed to the practice of virtue. No state ever ceased to be prosperous, but in consequence of having departed from those institutions to which she owed her prosperity." History indeed has shown that all states and empires have had their period of duration; but history, instructing us in the causes which have produced their decline and fall, inculcates also this salutary lesson, that nations are in general the masters of their own destiny, and that they may, and most certainly ought to, aspire at immortality.

7. It was a great *desideratum* in ancient politics, that a government should possess within itself the power of periodical reformation; a capacity of checking any overgrowth of authority in any of its branches, and of winding up the machine, or bringing back the constitution to its first principles. To the want of such a power in the states of antiquity (which they ineffectually endeavoured to supply by such partial contrivances as the ostracism and petalism) we may certainly ascribe, in no small degree, the decay of those states; for in their governments, when the balance was once destroyed, the evil grew worse from day to day, and admitted no remedy but a revolution, or entire change of the system. The British constitution possesses this inestimable advantage over all the governments both of ancient and modern times, with the single exception of the government of the United States of America. Besides the perpetual power of reform vested in parliament, the constitution may be purified of every abuse, and brought back to its first principles, at the commencement of every reign. But of this we shall afterwards treat in its proper place.

SECTION XLI.

ROME UNDER THE EMPERORS.

1. The battle of Actium decided the fate of the commonwealth, and Octavius, now named Augustus, was master of the Roman empire. He possessed completely the sagacity of discerning what character was best fitted for gaining the affections of the people whom he governed, and the versatility of temper and genius to assume it. His virtues, though the result of policy, not of nature, were certainly favourable to the happiness, and even to the liberties of his subjects. The fate of Cæsar warned him of the insecurity of a usurped dominion; and therefore, while he studiously imitated the engaging manners and clemency of his great predecessor, he affected a much higher degree of moderation, and respect for the rights of the people.

2. The temple of Janus was shut, which had been open for 188 years, since the beginning of the second Punic war; an event productive of universal joy. "The Romans (says Condillac) now believed themselves a free people, since they had no longer to fight for their liberty." The sovereign kept up this delusion, by maintaining the ancient forms of the republican constitution, in the election of

magistrates, &c., though they were nothing more than forms. He even pretended to consider his own function as merely a temporary administration for the public benefit. Invested with the consulate and censorship, he went through the regular forms of periodical election to those offices, and at the end of the seventh year of his government actually announced to the senate his resignation of all authority. The consequence was a general supplication of the senate and people, that he would not abandon the republic, which he had saved from destruction. "Since it must be so," said he, "I accept the empire for ten years, unless the public tranquillity shall, before the expiration of that time, permit me to enjoy retirement, which I passionately long for." He repeated the same mockery five times in the course of his government, accepting the administration sometimes for ten, and sometimes only for five years.

3. It was much to the credit of Augustus, that in the government of the empire he reposed unlimited confidence in Mecænas, a most able minister, who had sincerely at heart the interest and happiness of the people. By his excellent counsels all public affairs were conducted, and the most salutary laws enacted for the remedy of public grievances, and even the correction of the morals of the people. To his patronage literature and the arts owed their encouragement and advancement. By his influence and wise instructions Augustus assumed those virtues to which his heart was a stranger, and which, in their tendency to the happiness of his subjects, were equally effectual as if they had been the genuine fruits of his nature.

4. On the death of Marcellus, the nephew and son-in-law of Augustus, and a prince of great hopes, 23 A. C., the emperor bestowed his chief favour on Marcus Agrippa, giving him his daughter Julia, the widow of Marcellus, in marriage. Agrippa had considerable military talents, and was successful in accomplishing the reduction of Spain, and subduing the revolted provinces of Asia. Augustus associated Agrippa with himself in the office of censor, and would probably have given him a share of the empire, if his death had not occasioned a new arrangement. Julia now took for her third husband Tiberius, who became the son-in-law of the emperor by a double tie, for Augustus had previously married his mother Livia. This artful woman, removing all of the imperial family who stood betwixt her and the object of her ambition, thus made room for the succession of her son Tiberius, who, on his part, bent all his attention to gain the favour and confidence of Augustus. On the return of Tiberius from a successful campaign against the Germans, the people were made to solicit the emperor to confer on him the government of the provinces and the command of the armies. Augustus now gradually withdrew himself from the cares of empire. He died soon after at Nola, in Campania, in the 76th year of his age, and the 44th of his imperial reign, A. U. C. 767, and A. D. 14.

5. A considerable part of the lustre thrown on the reign of Augustus is owing to the splendid colouring bestowed on his character by the poets and other authors who adorned his court, and repaid his favours by their adulation. Other sovereigns of much higher merits have been less fortunate in obtaining the applause of posterity.

——————Illacrymabiles
Urguentur, ignotique, longa
Nocte, carent quia vate sacro. HOR. Car. Lib. IV, 9.

Unlamented and unknown they sink into oblivion, because they have no inspired bard to celebrate their praise.

One great event distinguished the reign of Augustus, the birth of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, which, according to the best authorities, happened A. U. C. 754, and four years before the vulgar date of the christian æra.*

5. Augustus had named Tiberius his heir, together with his mother Livia; and had substituted to them Drusus, the son of Tiberius, and Germanicus. Tiberius was vicious, debauched, and cruel; yet the very dread of his character operated in securing an easy succession to the empire. An embassy from the senate entreated him to accept the government, which he modestly affected to decline, but suffered himself to be won by their supplications. Notwithstanding these symptoms of moderation, it soon appeared that the power enjoyed by his predecessor was too limited for the ambition of Tiberius. It was not enough that the substance of the republic was gone; the very appearance of it was now to be demolished. The people were no longer assembled, and the magistrates of the state were supplied by the imperial will.

6. Germanicus, the nephew of Tiberius, became the object of his jealousy, from the glory which he had acquired by his military exploits in Germany, and the high favour in which he stood with the Roman people. He was recalled in the midst of his successes, and despatched to the oriental provinces, where he soon after died; and it was generally believed that he was poisoned by the emperor's command.

7. Ælius Sejanus, præfect of the prætorian guards, the favourite counsellor of Tiberius, and the obsequious minister of his tyranny and crimes, conceived the daring project of a revolution, which should place himself on the throne, by the extermination of the whole imperial family. Drusus, the son of the emperor, was destroyed by poison. Agrippina, the widow of Germanicus, with her elder son, was banished; and the younger son was confined in prison. Tiberius was persuaded by Sejanus, under the pretence of the discovery of plots for his assassination, to retire from Rome to the Isle of Capreæ, and devolve the government upon his faithful minister. But while Sejanus, thus far successful, meditated the last step to the accomplishment of his wishes, by the murder of his sovereign, his treason was detected; and the emperor despatched his mandate to the senate, which was followed by his immediate sentence and execution. The public indignation was not satisfied with his death: the populace tore his body to pieces, and flung it into the Tiber.

8. Tiberius now became utterly negligent of the cares of government, and the imperial power was displayed only in public executions, confiscations, and scenes of cruelty and rapine. At length the tyrant falling sick was strangled in his bed by Macro, the præfect of the prætorian guards, in the 78th year of his age, and the 23d of his reign.

9. In the 18th year of Tiberius, our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, the divine author of our religion, suffered death upon the cross, a sacrifice and propitiation for the sins of mankind, A. D. 33.

10. Tiberius had nominated for his heir, Caligula the son of Germanicus, his grandson by adoption; and had joined with him Tiberius the son of Drusus, his grandson by blood. The former enjoyed, on his father's account, the favour of the people; and the senate, to

* See Dr. Playfair's System of Chronology, p. 49, 50, a work of great research and accuracy, and by far the best on that subject.

gratify them, set aside the right of his colleague, and conferred on him the empire undivided. The commencement of his reign was signalized by a few acts of clemency, and even good policy. He restored the privileges of the comitia, and abolished arbitrary prosecutions for crimes of state. But, tyrannical and cruel by nature, he substituted military execution for legal punishment. The provinces were loaded with the most oppressive taxes, and daily confiscations filled the imperial coffers. The follies and absurdities of Caligula were equal to his vices, and it is hard to say whether he was most the object of hatred or of contempt to his subjects. He perished by assassination in the fourth year of his reign, the twenty-ninth of his age, A. U. C. 794, A. D. 42.

11. Claudius, the uncle of Caligula, was saluted emperor by the prætorian guards, who had been the murderers of his nephew. He was the son of Octavia, the sister of Augustus; a man of weak intellects, and of no education. His short reign was marked by an enterprise of importance. He undertook the reduction of Britain, and after visiting the island in person, left his generals, Plautius and Vespasian, to prosecute a war which was carried on for several years with various success. The Silures or inhabitants of South Wales, under their king Caractacus (Caradoc), made a brave resistance, but were finally defeated; and Caractacus was led captive to Rome, where the magnanimity of his demeanour procured him respect and admiration.

12. The civil administration of Claudius was weak and contemptible. He was the slave even of his domestics, and the dupe of his infamous wives Messalina and Agrippina. The former, abandoned to the most shameful profligacy, was at length but to death on suspicion of treasonable designs. The latter, who was the daughter of Germanicus, bent her utmost endeavours to secure the succession to the empire to her son Domitius Oenobardus, and employed every engine of vice and inhumanity to remove the obstacles to the accomplishment of her wishes. Having at length prevailed on Claudius to adopt her son, and confer on him the title of Cæsar, to the exclusion of his own son Britannicus, she now made room for the immediate elevation of Domitius, by poisoning her husband. Claudius was put to death in the 15th year of his reign, and the 63d of his age.

SECTION XLII.

1. The son of Agrippina assumed the title of Nero Claudius. He had enjoyed the benefit of a good education under the philosopher Seneca, but reaped from his instructions no other fruit than a pedantic affectation of taste and learning, with no real pretension to either. While controled by his tutor Seneca, and by Burrhus, captain of the prætorian guards, a man of worth and ability, Nero maintained for a short time a decency of public conduct; but the restraint was intolerable, and nature soon broke out. His real character was a compound of every thing that is base and inhuman. In the murder of his mother Agrippina he revenged the crime which she had committed in raising him to the throne; he rewarded the fidelity of Burrhus, by poisoning him; and as a last kindness to his tutor Seneca, he allowed him to choose the mode of his death. It was his darling amusement to exhibit on the stage and amphitheatre as an

actor, musician, or gladiator. At length, become the object of universal hatred and contempt, a rebellion of his subjects, headed by Vindex, an illustrious Gaul, hurled this monster from the throne. He had not courage to attempt resistance; and a slave, at his own request, despatched him with a dagger. Nero perished in the 30th year of his age, after a reign of fourteen years, A. D. 69.

2. Galba, the successor of Nero, was of an ancient and illustrious family. He was in the 73d year of his age when the senate, ratifying the choice of the prætorian bands, proclaimed him emperor. But an impolitic rigour of discipline soon disgusted the army; the avarice of his disposition, grudging the populace their favourite games and spectacles, deprived him of their affections; and some iniquitous prosecutions and confiscations excited general discontent and mutiny. Galba, adopted and designed for his successor the able and virtuous Piso; a measure which excited the jealousy of Otho, his former favourite, and led him to form the daring plan of raising himself to the throne by the destruction of both. He found the prætorians apt to his purpose. They proclaimed him emperor, and presented him, as a grateful offering, the heads of Galba and Piso, who were slain in quelling the insurrection. Galba had reigned seven months. *Major privato visus, dum privatus fuit, et omnium consensu capax imperii, nisi imperasset.* Tacitus. *He appeared to be greater than a private man, while he was in a private station; and by the consent of all was capable of governing, if he had not governed.*

3. Otho had a formidable rival in Vitellius, who had been proclaimed emperor by his army in Germany. It is hard to say which of the competitors was, in point of abilities, the more despicable, or in character the more infamous. A decisive battle was fought at Bedriacum, near Mantua, where Otho was defeated, and in a fit of despair ended his life by his own hand, after a reign of three months, A. D. 70.

4. The reign of Vitellius was of eight months' duration. He is said to have proposed Nero for his model, and it was just that he should resemble him in his fate. Vespasian had obtained from Nero the charge of the war against the Jews, which he had conducted with ability and success, and was proclaimed emperor by his troops in the east. A great part of Italy submitted to Vespasian's generals; and Vitellius meanly capitulated to save his life, by a resignation of the empire. The people, indignant at his dastardly spirit, compelled him to an effort of resistance; but the attempt was fruitless. Priscus, one of the generals of Vespasian, took possession of Rome; and Vitellius was massacred, and his body flung into the Tiber.

5. Vespasian, though of mean descent, was worthy of the empire, and reigned with high popularity for ten years. He possessed great clemency of disposition. His manners were affable and engaging, and his mode of life was characterized by simplicity and frugality. He respected the ancient forms of the constitution, restored the senate to its deliberative rights, and acted by its authority in the administration of all public affairs. The only blemish in his character was a tincture of avarice, and even that is greatly extenuated by the laudable and patriotic use which he made of his revenues. Under his reign, and by the arms of his son Titus, was terminated the war against the Jews. They had been brought under the yoke of Rome by Pompey, who took Jerusalem. They were governed for some time by Herod, as viceroy under Augustus. The tyranny of his son Archelaus was the cause of his banishment, and of the reduction of

Judæa into the ordinary condition of a Roman province. The Jews rebelled on every slight occasion, and Nero had sent Vespasian to reduce them to order. He had just prepared for the siege of Jerusalem, when he was called to Rome to assume the government of the empire. Titus wished to spare the city, and tried every means to prevail on the Jews to surrender; but in vain. Their ruin was decreed by Heaven. After an obstinate blockade of six months Jerusalem was taken by storm, the temple burnt to ashes, and the city buried in ruins. The Roman empire was now in profound peace. Vespasian associated Titus in the imperial dignity, and soon after died, universally lamented, at the age of sixty-nine, A. D. 79.

6. The character of Titus was humane, munificent, dignified, and splendid. His short reign was a period of great happiness and prosperity to the empire, and his government a constant example of virtue, justice, and beneficence. In his time happened that dreadful eruption of Vesuvius, which overwhelmed the cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii. The public losses from these calamities he repaired by the sacrifice of his fortune and revenues. He died in the third year of his reign, and fortieth of his age; ever to be remembered by that most exalted epithet, *deliciæ humani generis* (*the delight of mankind*).

7. Domitian, the brother of Titus, was suspected of murdering him by poison, and succeeded to the empire, A. D. 81. He was a vicious and inhuman tyrant. A rebellion in Germany gave him occasion to signalize the barbarity of his disposition; and its consequences were long felt in the sanguinary punishments inflicted under the pretence of justice. The prodigal and voluptuous spirit of this reign was a singular contrast to its tyranny and inhumanity. The people were loaded with insupportable taxes to furnish spectacles and games for their amusement. The successes of Agricola in Britain threw a lustre on the Roman arms, no part of which reflected on the emperor, for he treated this eminent commander with the basest ingratitude. After fifteen tedious years this monster fell at last the victim of assassination, the empress herself conducting the plot for his murder, A. D. 96.

8. Cocceius Nerva, a Cretan by birth, was chosen emperor by the senate, from respect to the probity and virtues of his character. He was too old for the burden of government, and of a temper too placid for the restraint of rooted corruptions and enormities. His reign was weak, inefficient, and contemptible. His only act of real merit as a sovereign, was the adoption of the virtuous Trajan as his successor. Nerva died after a reign of sixteen months, A. D. 98.

9. Ulpius Trajanus possessed every talent and every virtue that can adorn a sovereign. Of great military abilities, and an indefatigable spirit of enterprise, he raised the Roman arms to their ancient splendour, and greatly enlarged the boundaries of the empire. He subdued the Dacians, conquered the Parthians, and brought under subjection Assyria, Mesopotamia, and Arabia Felix. Nor was he less eminent in promoting the happiness of his subjects, and the internal prosperity of the empire. His largesses were humane and munificent. He was the friend and support of the virtuous indigent, and the liberal patron of every useful art and talent. His bounties were supplied by well judged economy in his private fortune, and a wise administration of the public finances. In his own life he was a man of simple manners, modest, affable, fond of the familiar intercourse

of his friends, and sensible to all the social and benevolent affections. He merited the surname universally bestowed on him, *Trajanus Optimus*. He died at the age of sixty-three, after a glorious reign of nineteen years, A. D. 118.

10. Ælius Adrianus, nephew of Trajan, and worthy to fill his place, was chosen emperor by the army in the east, and his title was acknowledged by all orders of the state. He adopted a policy different from that of his predecessor. Judging the limits of the empire too extensive, he abandoned all the conquests of Trajan bounding the eastern provinces by the Euphrates. He visited in person all the provinces of the empire, reforming in his progress all abuses, relieving his subjects of every oppressive burden, rebuilding the ruined cities, and establishing every where a regular and mild administration, under magistrates of approved probity and humanity. He gave a discharge to the indigent debtors of the state, and appointed liberal institutions for the education of the children of the poor. To the talents of an able politician he joined an excellent taste in the liberal arts. His reign, which was of twenty-two years' duration, was an æra both of public happiness and splendour. In the last year of his life he bequeathed to the empire a double legacy, in adopting for his immediate successor Titus Aurelius Antoninus, and substituting Annius Verus to succeed upon his death. These were the Antonines, who during forty years ruled the Roman empire with consummate wisdom, ability, and virtue. Adrian died A. D. 138, at the age of sixty-two.

SECTION XLIII.

AGE OF THE ANTONINES, &c.

1. The happiest reigns furnish the fewest events for the pen of history. Antoninus was the father of his people. He preferred peace to the ambition of conquest; yet in every necessary war the Roman arms had their wonted renown. The British province was enlarged by the conquests of Urbicus, and some formidable rebellions were subdued in Germany, Dacia, and the east. The domestic administration of the sovereign was dignified, splendid, and humane. With all the virtues of Numa, his love of religion, peace, and justice, he had the superior advantage of diffusing these blessings over a great portion of the world. He died at the age of seventy-four, after a reign of twenty-two years, A. D. 161.

2. Annius Verus assumed, at his accession, the name of Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, and bestowed on his brother Lucius Verus a joint administration of the empire. The former was as eminent for the worth and virtues of his character, as the latter was remarkable for profligacy, meanness, and vice. Marcus Aurelius was attached both by nature and education to the Stoical philosophy, which he has admirably taught and illustrated in his *Meditations*. His own life was the best commentary on his precepts. The Parthians were repulsed in an attack upon the empire, and a rebellion of the Germans was subdued. In these wars the mean and worthless Verus brought disgrace upon the Roman name in every region where he commanded; but fortunately relieved the empire of its fears by an early death. The residue of the reign of Marcus Aurelius was a continued blessing to his subjects. He reformed the internal policy of the state, regulated the government of the provinces, and visited himself, for

the purposes of beneficence, the most distant quarters of his dominions. "He appeared," says an ancient author, "like some benevolent deity, diffusing around him universal peace and happiness." He died in Pannonia, in the 59th year of his age, and 19th of his reign, A. D. 180.

3. Commodus, his most unworthy son, succeeded to the empire on his death. He resembled in character his mother Faustina, a woman infamous for all manner of vice. Her profligacy was known to all but her husband Marcus, by whom she was regarded as a paragon of virtue. Commodus had an aversion to every rational and liberal pursuit, and a fond attachment to the sports of the circus and amphitheatre, the hunting of wild beasts, and the combats of boxers and gladiators. The measures of this reign were as unimportant as the character of the sovereign was contemptible. His concubine and some of his chief officers prevented their own destruction by assassinating the tyrant, in the 32d year of his age, and 13th of his reign, A. D. 193.

4. The prætorian guards gave the empire to Publius Helvius Pertinax, a man of mean birth, who had risen to esteem by his virtues and military talents. He applied himself with zeal to the correction of abuses; but the austerity of his government deprived him of the affections of a corrupted people. He had disappointed the army of a promised reward, and, after a reign of eighty-six days, was murdered in the imperial palace by the same hands which had placed him on the throne.

5. The empire was now put up to auction by the prætorians, and was purchased by Didius Julianus; while Pescenius Niger in Asia, Clodius Albinus in Britain, and Septimius Severus in Illyria, were each chosen emperor by the troops which they commanded. Severus marched to Rome, and, on his approach, the prætorians abandoned Didius, who had failed to pay the stipulated price for his elevation; and the senate formally deposed to put him to death. Severus being now master of Rome, prepared to reduce the provinces which had acknowledged the sovereignty of Niger and Albinus. These two rivals were successively subdued. Niger was slain in battle, and Albinus fell by his own hands. The administration of Severus was wise and equitable, but tinctured with despotic rigour. It was his purpose to erect the fabric of absolute monarchy, and all his institutions operated with able policy to that end. He possessed eminent military talents. He gloriously boasted, that, having received the empire oppressed with foreign and domestic wars, he left it in profound, universal, and honourable peace. He carried with him into Britain his two sons, Caracalla and Geta, whose unpromising dispositions clouded his latter days. In this war the Caledonians under Fingal are said to have defeated, on the banks of the Carron, *Caracul*, the son of the king of the world. Severus died at York, in the 66th year of his age, after a reign of eighteen years, A. D. 211.

6. The mutual hatred of Caracalla and Geta was increased by their association in the empire; and the former, with brutal inhumanity, caused his brother to be openly murdered in the arms of his mother. His reign, which was of six years' duration, and one continued series of atrocities, was at length terminated by assassination, A. D. 217.

7. Those disorders in the empire which began with Commodus continued for about a century, till the accession of Diocletian. That interval was filled by the reigns of Heliogabalus, Alexander Severus,

Maximin. Gordian, Decius, Gallus, Valerianus, Gallienus, Claudius, Aurelianus, Tacitus, Probus, and Carus; a period of which the annals furnish neither amusement nor useful information. The single exception is the reign of Alexander Severus, a mild, beneficent, and enlightened prince, whose character shines the more from the contrast of those who preceded and followed him.

8. Diocletian began his reign A. D. 284, and introduced a new system of administration, dividing the empire into four governments, under as many princes. Maximian shared with him the title of Augustus, and Galerius and Constantius were declared Cæsars. Each had his separate department or province, all nominally supreme, but in reality under the direction of the superior talents and authority of Diocletian: an unwise policy, which depended for its efficacy on individual ability alone. Diocletian and Maximian, trusting to the continuance of that order in the empire which their vigour had established, retired from sovereignty, and left the government in the hands of the Cæsars; but Constantius died soon after in Britain, and his son Constantine was proclaimed emperor at York, though Galerius did not acknowledge his title. Maximian, however, having once more resumed the purple, bestowed on Constantine his daughter in marriage, and thus invested him with a double title to empire. On the death of Maximian and Galerius, Constantine had no other competitor but Maxentius, the son of the former, and the contest between them was decided by the sword. Maxentius fell in battle, and Constantine remained sole master of the empire.

9. The administration of Constantine was, in the beginning of his reign, mild, equitable, and politic. Though zealously attached to the christian faith, he made no violent innovations on the religion of the state. He introduced order and economy into the civil government, and repressed every species of oppression and corruption. But his natural temper was severe and cruel, and the latter part of his reign was as much deformed by intolerant zeal and sanguinary rigour, as the former had been remarkable for equity and benignity. From this unfavourable change of character he lost the affections of his subjects; and, from a feeling probably of reciprocal disgust, he removed the seat of the Roman empire to Byzantium, now termed Constantinople. The court followed the sovereign; the opulent proprietors were attended by their slaves and retainers. Rome was in a few years greatly depopulated, and the new capital swelled at once to enormous magnitude. It was characterized by eastern splendour, luxury, and voluptuousness; and the cities of Greece were despoiled for its embellishments. Of the internal policy of the empire we shall treat in the next section. In an expedition against the Persians, Constantine died at Nicomedia, in the 30th year of his reign, and 63d of his age, A. D. 337. In the time of Constantine the Goths had made several irruptions on the empire, and, though repulsed and beaten, began gradually to encroach on the provinces.

SECTION XLIV.

STATE OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE AT THE TIME OF CONSTANTINE. HIS SUCCESSORS.

1. In lieu of the ancient republican distinctions, which were founded chiefly on personal merit, a rigid subordination of rank and office now went through all the orders of the state. The magistrates were divided into three classes, distinguished by the unmeaning titles of, 1, the illustrious; 2, the respectable; 3, the *clarissimi*. The epithet of illustrious was bestowed on, 1, the consuls and patricians; 2, the prætorian præfects of Rome and Constantinople; 3, the masters-general of the cavalry and infantry; 4, the seven ministers of the palace. The consuls were created by the sole authority of the emperor: their dignity was inefficient; they had no appropriate function in the state, and their names served only to give the legal date to the year. The dignity of patrician was not, as in ancient times, a hereditary distinction, but was bestowed, as a title of honour, by the emperor on his favourites. From the time of the abolition of the prætorian bands by Constantine, the dignity of prætorian præfect was conferred on the civil governors of the four departments of the empire. These were, the East, Illyria, Italy, and the Gauls. They had the supreme administration of justice and of the finances, the power of supplying all the inferior magistracies in their district, and an appellative jurisdiction from all its tribunals. Independent of their authority, Rome and Constantinople had each its own præfect, who was the chief magistrate of the city. In the second class, the respectable, were the proconsuls of Asia, Achaia, and Africa, and the military *comites* and *duces*, generals of the imperial armies. The third class, *clarissimi*, comprehended the inferior governors and magistrates of the provinces, responsible to the præfects and their deputies.

2. The intercourse between the court and provinces was maintained by the construction of roads, and the institution of regular posts or couriers; under which denomination were ranked the numberless spies of government, whose duty was to convey all sort of intelligence from the remotest quarter of the empire to its chief seat. Every institution was calculated to support the fabric of despotism. Torture was employed for the discovery of crimes. Taxes and impositions of every nature were prescribed and levied by the sole authority of the emperor. The quantity and rate were fixed by a *census* made over all the provinces, and part was generally paid in money, part in the produce of the lands; a burden frequently found so grievous as to prompt to the neglect of agriculture. Every object of merchandise and manufacture was likewise highly taxed. Subsidies, moreover, were exacted from all the cities, under the name of free gifts, on various occasions of public concerns; as the accession of an emperor, his consulate, the birth of a prince, a victory over the barbarians, or any other event of similar importance.

3. An impolitic distinction was made between the troops stationed in the distant provinces and those in the heart of the empire. The latter, termed *palatines*, enjoyed a higher pay and more peculiar favour, and, having less employment, spent their time in idleness and luxury; while the former, termed the *borderers*, who, in fact, had the

care of the empire, and were exposed to perpetual hard service, had, with an inferior reward, the mortification of feeling themselves regarded as of meaner rank than their fellow-soldiers. Constantine likewise, from a timid policy of guarding against mutinies of the troops, reduced the legion from its ancient complement of 5,000, 6,000, 7,000, and 8,000, to 1,000 or 1,500; and debased the body of the army by the intermixture of Scythians, Goths, and Germans.

4. This immense mass of heterogeneous parts, which internally laboured with the seeds of dissolution and corruption, was kept together for some time by the vigorous exertion of despotic authority. The fabric was splendid and august; but it wanted both that energy of constitution and that real dignity, which, in former times, it derived from the exercise of heroic and patriotic virtues.

5. Constantine, with a destructive policy, had divided the empire among five princes, three of them his sons, and two nephews; but Constantius, the youngest of the sons, finally got rid of all his competitors, and ruled the empire alone with a weak and impotent sceptre. A variety of domestic broils, and mutinies of the troops against their generals, had left the western frontier to the mercy of the barbarian nations. The Franks, Saxons, Alemanni, and Sarmatians, laid waste all the fine countries watered by the Rhine, and the Persians made dreadful incursions on the provinces of the east. Constantius indolently wasted his time in theological controversies, but was prevailed on to adopt one prudent measure, the appointment of his cousin Julian to the dignity of Cæsar.

6. Julian possessed many heroic qualities, and his mind was formed by nature for the sovereignty of a great people; but, educated at Athens, in the schools of the Platonic philosophy, he had unfortunately conceived a rooted antipathy to the doctrines of christianity. With every talent of a general, and possessing the confidence and affection of his troops, he once more restored the glory of the Roman arms, and successfully repressed the invasions of the barbarians. His victories excited the jealousy of Constantius, who meanly resolved to remove from his command the better part of his troops. The consequence was a declaration of the army, that it was their choice that Julian should be their emperor. Constantius escaped the ignominy that awaited him by dying at this critical juncture, and Julian was immediately acknowledged sovereign of the Roman empire.

7. The reformation of civil abuses formed the first object of his attention, which he next turned to the reformation, as he thought, of religion, by the suppression of christianity. He began by reforming the pagan theology, and sought to raise the character of its priests, by inculcating purity of life and sanctity of morals; thus bearing involuntary testimony to the superior excellence, in those respects, of that religion which he laboured to abolish. Without persecuting he attacked the christians by the more dangerous policy of treating them with contempt, and removing them, as visionaries, from all employments of public trust. He refused them the benefit of the laws to decide their differences, because their religion forbade all dissensions; and they were debarred the studies of literature and philosophy, which they could not learn but from pagan authors. He was himself, as a pagan, the slave of the most bigoted superstition, believing in omens and auguries, and fancying himself favoured with an actual intercourse with the gods and goddesses. To avenge the injuries which the empire had sustained from the Persians, Julian marched into the heart of Asia, and was for some time in the train

of conquest, when, in a fatal engagement, though crowned with victory, he was slain, at the age of thirty-one, after a reign of three years, A. D. 363.

8. The Roman army was dispirited by the death of its commander. They chose for their emperor Jovian, a captain of the domestic guards, and purchased a free retreat from the dominions of Persia by the ignominious surrender of five provinces, which had been ceded by a former sovereign to Galerius. The short reign of Jovian, a period of seven months, was mild and equitable. He favoured christianity, and restored its votaries to all their privileges as subjects. He died suddenly at the age of thirty-three.

9. Valentinian was chosen emperor by the army on the death of Jovian; a man of obscure birth and severe manners, but of considerable military talents. He associated with himself in the empire his brother Valens, to whom he gave the dominion of the eastern provinces, reserving to himself the western. The Persians, under Sapor, were making inroads on the former, and the latter was subject to continual invasion from the northern barbarians. They were successfully repelled by Valentinian in many battles; and his domestic administration was wise, equitable, and politic. The christian religion was favoured by the emperor, though not promoted by the persecution of its adversaries; a contrast to the conduct of his brother Valens, who, intemperately supporting the Arian heresy, set the whole provinces in a flame, and drew a swarm of invaders upon the empire in the guise of friends and allies, who in the end entirely subverted it. These were the Goths, who, migrating from Scandinavia, had, in the second century, settled on the banks of the Palus Mœotis, and thence gradually extended their territory. In the reign of Valens they took possession of Dacia, and were known by the distinct appellation of Ostrogoths and Visigoths, or eastern and western Goths; a remarkable people, whose manners, customs, government, and laws, are afterwards to be particularly noted.

10. Valentinian died on an expedition against the Alemanni, and was succeeded in the empire of the west by Gratian, his eldest son, a boy of sixteen years of age, A. D. 367. Valens, in the east, was the scourge of his people. The Huns, a new race of barbarians, of Tartar or Siberian origin, now poured down on the provinces both of the west and east. The Goths, comparatively a civilized people, fled before them. The Visigoths, who were first attacked, requested protection from the empire, and Valens imprudently gave them a settlement in Thrace. The Ostrogoths made the same request, and, on refusal, forced their way into the same province. Valens gave them battle at Adrianople. His army was defeated, and he was slain in the engagement. The Goths, unresisted, ravaged Achaia and Pannonia.

11. Gratian, a youth of great worth, but of little energy of character, assumed Theodosius as his colleague. On the early death of Gratian, and the minority of his son Valentinian II, Theodosius governed, with great ability, both the eastern and western empire. The character of Theodosius, deservedly surnamed *the great*, was worthy of the best ages of the Roman state. He successfully repelled the encroachments of the barbarians, and secured, by wholesome laws, the prosperity of his people. He died, after a reign of eighteen years, assigning to his sons, Arcadius and Honorius, the separate sovereignties of east and west, A. D. 395.

SECTION XLV.

PROGRESS OF THE CHRISTIAN RELIGION, FROM ITS INSTITUTION TO THE EXTINCTION OF PAGANISM IN THE REIGN OF THEODOSIUS.

1. The reign of Theodosius was signalized by the downfal of the pagan superstition, and the full establishment of the christian religion in the Roman empire. This great revolution of opinions is highly worthy of attention, and naturally induces a retrospect to the condition of the christian church from its institution down to this period.

It has been frequently remarked (because it is an obvious truth), that at the time of our Saviour's birth a divine revelation seemed to be more peculiarly needed; and that, from a concurrence of circumstances, the state of the world was then uncommonly favourable for the extensive dissemination of the doctrines which it conveyed. The union of so many nations under one power, and the extension of civilization, were favourable to the progress of a religion which prescribed universal charity and benevolence. The gross superstitions of paganism, and its tendency to corrupt instead of purifying the morals, contributed to explode its influence with every thinking mind. Even the prevalent philosophy of the times, epicurism, more easily understood than the refinements of the Platonists, and more grateful than the severities of the Stoics, tended to degrade human nature to the level of the brute creation. The christian religion, thus necessary for the reformation of the world, found its chief partisans in those who were the friends of virtue, and its enemies among the votaries of vice.

2. The persecution which the christians suffered from the Romans has been deemed an exception to that spirit of toleration which they showed to the religions of other nations; but they were tolerant only to those whose theologies were not hostile to their own. The religion of the Romans was interwoven with their political constitution. The zeal of the christians, aiming at the suppression of all idolatry, was naturally regarded as dangerous to the state; and hence they were the object of hatred and persecution. In the first century the christian church suffered deeply under Nero and Domitian; yet those persecutions had no tendency to check the progress of its doctrines.

3. It is matter of question what was the form of the primitive church, and the nature of its government; and on this head much difference of opinion obtains, not only between the catholics and protestants, but between the different classes of the latter, as the Lutherans and Calvinists. It is moreover an opinion, that our Saviour and his apostles, confining their precepts to the pure doctrines of religion, have left all christian societies to regulate their frame and government in the manner best suited to the civil constitutions of the countries in which they are established.

4. In the second century the books of the New Testament were collected into a volume by the elder fathers of the church, and received as a canon of faith. The Old Testament had been translated from the Hebrew into Greek, by order of Ptolemy Philadelphus, 284 years before Christ. The early church suffered much from an absurd endeavour of the more learned of its votaries to reconcile its

doctrines to the tenets of the pagan philosophers: hence the sects of the Gnostics and Ammonians, and the Platonising christians. In the second century the Greek churches began to form provincial associations, and to establish general rules of government and discipline. Assemblies were held, termed *synodoi* and *concilia*, over which a metropolitan presided. A short time after arose the superior order of patriarch, presiding over a large district of the christian world; and a subordination taking place even among these, the bishop of Rome was acknowledged the chief of the patriarchs. Persecution still attended the early church, even under those excellent princes, Trajan, Adrian, and the Antonines; and, in the reign of Severus, all the provinces of the empire were stained with the blood of the martyrs.

5. The third century was more favourable to the progress of christianity and the tranquillity of its disciples. In those times it suffered less from the civil arm than from the pens of the pagan philosopers, Porphyry, Philostratus, &c.; but these attacks called forth the zeal and talents of many able defenders, as Origen, Dionysius, and Cyprian. A part of the Gauls, Germany, and Britain, received the light of the gospel in this century.

6. In the fourth century the christian church was alternately persecuted and cherished by the Roman emperors. Among its oppressors we rank Diocletian, Galerius, and Julian; among its favourers, Constantine and his sons, Valentinian, Valens, Gratian, and the excellent Theodosius, in whose reign the pagan superstition came to its final period.

7. From the age of Numa to the reign of Gratian the Romans preserved the regular succession of the several sacerdotal colleges, the pontiffs, augurs, vestals, *flamines*, *salii*, &c., whose authority, though weakened in the latter ages, was still protected by the laws. Even the christian emperors held, like their pagan predecessors, the office of *pontifex maximus*. Gratian was the first who refused that ancient dignity as a profanation. In the time of Theodosius the cause of christianity and of paganism was solemnly debated in the Roman senate between Ambrose, archbishop of Milan, the champion of the former, and Symmachus, the defender of the latter. The cause of christianity was triumphant, and the senate issued its decree for the abolition of paganism, whose downfal in the capital was soon followed by its extinction in the provinces. Theodosius, with able policy, permitted no persecution of the ancient religion, which perished with more rapidity, because its fall was gentle and unresisted.

8. But the christian church exhibited a superstition in some respects little less irrational than polytheism, in the worship of saints and relics; and many novel tenets, unfounded in the precepts of our Saviour and his apostles, were manifestly borrowed from the pagan schools. The doctrines of the Platonic philosophy seem to have led to the notions of an intermediate state of purification, celibacy of the priests, ascetic mortifications, penances, and monastic seclusion.

SECTION XLVI.

EXTINCTION OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE IN THE WEST.

1. In the reigns of Arcadius and Honorius, the sons and successors of Theodosius, the barbarian nations established themselves in the frontier provinces both of the east and west. Theodosius had committed the government to Rufinus and Stilicho during the nonage of his sons; and their fatal dissensions gave every advantage to the enemies of the empire. The Huns, actually invited by Rufinus, overspread Armenia, Cappadocia, and Syria. The Goths, under Alaric, ravaged to the borders of Italy, and laid waste Achaia to the Peloponnesus. Stilicho, an able general, made a noble stand against these invaders; but his plans were frustrated by the machinations of his rivals, and the weakness of Arcadius, who purchased an ignominious peace, by ceding to Alaric the whole of Greece.

2. Alaric, now styled king of the Visigoths, prepared to add Italy to his new dominions. He passed the Alps, and was carrying all before him, when, amused by the politic Stilicho with the prospect of a new cession of territory, he was attacked unawares, and defeated by that general, then commanding the armies of Honorius. The emperor triumphantly celebrated, on that occasion, the *eternal* defeat of the Gothic nation; an eternity bounded by the lapse of a few months. In this interval, a torrent of the Goths breaking down upon Germany forced the nations whom they dispossessed, the Suevi, Alani, and Vandals, to precipitate themselves upon Italy. They joined their arms to those of Alaric, who, thus reinforced, determined to overwhelm Rome. The policy of Stilicho made him change his purpose, on the promise of 4,000 pounds weight of gold; a promise repeatedly broken by Honorius, and its violation finally revenged by Alaric, by the sack and plunder of the city, A. D. 410. With generous magnanimity he spared the lives of the vanquished, and, with singular liberality of spirit, was anxious to preserve every ancient edifice from destruction.

3. Alaric, preparing now for the conquest of Sicily and Africa, died at this æra of his highest glory; and Honorius, instead of profiting by this event to recover his lost provinces, made a treaty with his successor Ataulfus, gave him in marriage his sister Placidia, and secured his friendship by ceding to him a portion of Spain, while a great part of what remained had before been occupied by the Vandals. He allowed soon after to the Burgundians a just title to their conquests in Gaul. Thus the western empire was passing by degrees from the dominion of its ancient masters.

4. The mean and dissolute Arcadius died in the year 408, leaving the eastern empire to his infant son Theodosius II. Theodosius was a weak prince, and his sister Pulcheria governed the empire, with prudence and ability, for the space of forty years. Honorius died in the year 423. The laws of Arcadius and Honorius are, with a few exceptions, remarkable for their wisdom and equity; which is a singular circumstance, considering the personal character of those princes, and evinces at least that they employed some able ministers.

5. The Vandals, under Genseric, subdued the Roman province in Africa. The Huns, in the east, extended their conquests from the borders of China to the Baltic sea. Under Attila they laid waste

Mœsia and Thrace; and Theodosius, after a mean attempt to murder the barbarian general, ingloriously submitted to pay him an annual tribute. It was in this crisis of universal decay that the Britons implored the Romans to defend them against the Picts and Scots, but received for answer, that they had nothing to bestow on them but compassion. The Britons, in despair, sought aid from the Saxons and Angles, who seized, as their property, the country which they were invited to protect, and founded, in the fifth and sixth centuries, the kingdoms of the Saxon heptarchy. (See Part II, Sect. XII, § 5.)

6. Attila, with an army of 500,000 men, threatened the total destruction of the empire. He was ably opposed by Ætius, general of Valentinian III., now emperor of the west. Valentinian was shut up in Rome by the arms of the barbarian, and at length compelled to purchase a peace. On the death of Attila his dominions were dismembered by his sons, whose dissensions gave temporary relief to the falling empire of Rome.

7. After Valentinian III. we have in the west a succession of princes, or rather names, for the events of their reigns merit no detail. In the reign of Romulus, surnamed Augustulus, the son of Orestes, the empire of the west came to a final period. Odoacer, prince of the Heruli, subdued Italy, and spared the life of Augustulus, on condition of his resigning the throne, A. D. 476. From the building of Rome to the extinction of the western empire, A. D. 476, is a period of 1224 years.

8. We may reduce to one ultimate cause the various circumstances that produced the decline and fall of this once magnificent fabric. The ruin of the Roman empire was the inevitable consequence of its greatness. The extension of its dominion relaxed the vigour of its frame; the vices of the conquered nations infected the victorious legions, and foreign luxuries corrupted their commanders; selfish interest supplanted the patriotic affection; the martial spirit was purposely debased by the emperors, who dreaded its effects on their own power; and the whole mass, thus weakened and enervated, fell an easy prey to the torrent of barbarians which overwhelmed it.

9. The Herulian dominion in Italy was of short duration. Theodoric, prince of the Ostrogoths (afterwards deservedly surnamed *the great*), obtained permission of Zeno, emperor of the east, to attempt the recovery of Italy, and a promise of its sovereignty as the reward of his success. The whole nation of the Ostrogoths attended the standard of Theodoric, who was victorious in repeated engagements, and at length compelled Odoacer to surrender all Italy to the conqueror. The Romans had tasted happiness under the government of Odoacer; but their happiness was increased under the dominion of Theodoric, who possessed every talent and virtue of a sovereign. His equity and clemency rendered him a blessing to his subjects. He allied himself with all the surrounding nations, the Franks, Visigoths, Burgundians, and Vandals. He left a peaceable sceptre to his grandson Athalaric, during whose infancy his mother Amalasonte governed with such admirable wisdom and moderation, as left her subjects no real cause of regret for the loss of her father.

10. While such was the state of Gothic Italy, the empire of the east was under the government of Justinian, a prince of mean ability, vain, capricious, and tyrannical. Yet the Roman name rose for a while from its abasement by the merit of his generals. Belisarius was the support of his throne; yet Justinian treated him with the most

shocking ingratitude. The Persians were at this time the most formidable enemies of the empire, under their sovereigns Cabades and Cosrhoes; and from the latter, a most able prince, Justinian meanly purchased a peace, by a cession of territory, and an enormous tribute in gold. The civil factions of Constantinople, arising from the most contemptible of causes, the disputes of the performers in the circus and amphitheatre, threatened to hurl Justinian from the throne, but were fortunately composed by the arms and the policy of Belisarius. This great general overwhelmed the Vandal sovereignty of Africa, and recovered that province to the empire. He wrested Italy from its Gothic sovereign, and once more restored it for a short time to the dominion of its ancient masters.

11. Italy was recovered to the Goths by the heroic Totila, who besieged and took the city of Rome, but forebore to destroy it at the request of Belisarius. The fortunes of Belisarius were now in the wane. He was compelled to evacuate Italy, and, on his return to Constantinople, his long services were repaid with disgrace. He was superseded in the command of the armies by the eunuch Narses, who defeated Totila in a decisive engagement, in which the Gothic prince was slain. Narses governed Italy with great ability for thirteen years, when he was ungratefully recalled by Justin II. the successor of Justinian. He invited the Lombards to avenge his injuries; and this new tribe of invaders overran and conquered the country. A. D. 568.

SECTION XLVII.

OF THE ORIGIN, MANNERS, AND CHARACTER OF THE GOTHIC NATIONS, BEFORE THEIR ESTABLISHMENT IN THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

1. The history and manners of the Gothic nations are curious objects of inquiry, from their influence on the constitutions and national character of most of the modern kingdoms of Europe. As the present inhabitants of these kingdoms are a mixed race, compounded of the Goths and of the nations whom they subdued, the laws, manners, and institutions of the modern kingdoms are the result of this conjunction; and in so far as these are different from the usages prevalent before this intermixture, they are, in all probability, to be traced from the ancient manners and institutions of those northern tribes. We purpose to consider the original character of the Gothic nations, and the change of their manners on their establishment in the Roman empire.

2. The Scandinavian chronicles attribute to the ancient inhabitants of that country an Asiatic origin, and inform us that the Goths were a colony of Scythians, who migrated thither from the banks of the Black sea and the Caspian: but these chronicles do not fix the period of this migration, which some later writers suppose to have been 1,000 years, and others only 70, before the christian æra. Odin, the chief deity of the Scandinavians, was the god of the Scythians. Sigga, a Scythian prince, is said to have undertaken a distant expedition, and, after he had subdued several of the Sarmatian tribes, to have penetrated into the northern parts of Germany, and thence into Scandinavia. He assumed the honours of divinity, and the title of Odin, his national god. He conquered Denmark, Sweden, and

Norway, and gave wise and salutary laws to the nations which he had subdued by his arms.

3. The agreement in manners between the Scythians and the ancient Scandinavian nations, corroborates the accounts given in the northern chronicles of the identity of their origin. The description of the manners of the Germans by Tacitus (though this people was probably not of Scythian, but of Celtic origin) may, in many particulars, be applied to the ancient nations of Scandinavia; and the same description coincides remarkably with the account given by Herodotus of the manners of the Scythians. Their life was spent in hunting, pasturage, and predatory war. Their dress, their weapons, their food, their respect for their women, their religious worship, were the same. They despised learning, and had no other records for many ages than the songs of their bards.

4. The theology of the Scandinavians was most intimately connected with their manners. They held three great principles or fundamental doctrines of religion: "To serve the Supreme Being with prayer and sacrifice; to do no wrong or unjust action; and to be intrepid in fight." These principles are the key to the *Edda*, or sacred book of the Scandinavians, which, though it contains the substance of a very ancient religion, is not a work of high antiquity, being compiled in the thirteenth century by Snorro Sturleson, supreme judge of Iceland. Odin, characterized as the terrible and severe god, the father of carnage, the avenger, is the principal deity of the Scandinavians; from whose union with Frea, the heavenly mother, sprung various subordinate divinities; as Thor, who perpetually wars against Loke and his evil giants, who envy the power of Odin, and seek to destroy his works. Among the inferior deities are the virgins of the Valhalla, whose office is to minister to the heroes in paradise. The favourites of Odin are all who die in battle, or, what is equally meritorious, by their own hand. The timid wretch, who allows himself to perish by disease or age, is unworthy of the joys of paradise. These joys are, fighting, ceaseless slaughter, and drinking beer out of the skulls of their enemies, with a renovation of life, to furnish a perpetuity of the same pleasures.

5. As the Scandinavians believed this world to be the work of some superior intelligences, so they held all nature to be constantly under the regulation of an almighty will and power, and subject to a fixed and unalterable destiny. These notions had a wonderful effect on the national manners, and on the conduct of individuals. The Scandinavian placed his sole delight in war: he entertained an absolute contempt of danger and of death, and his glory was estimated by the number which he had slain in battle. The death-song of *Regner Lodbrok*, who comforts himself in his last agonies by recounting all the acts of carnage which he had committed in his life-time, is a faithful picture of the Scandinavian character.

6. We have remarked the great similarity of the manners of the Scandinavians and the ancient Germans. These nations seem, however, to have had a different origin. The Germans, as well as the Gauls, were branches of that great original nation termed *Celtæ*, who inhabited most of the countries of Europe south of the Baltic, before they were invaded by the northern tribes from Scandinavia. The Celtæ were all of the druidical religion, a system different from the belief and worship of the Scandinavians, but founded nearly on the same principles; and the Goths, in their progress, intermixing with the Germans, could not fail to adopt, in part, the notions of a kindred

religion. Druidism acknowledged a god who delighted in bloodshed, taught the immortality of the soul, and inculcated the contempt of danger and of death. Tacitus remarks that the ancient Germans had neither temples nor idols. The open air was the temple of the divinity, and a consecrated grove the appropriated place for prayer and sacrifice, which none but the priests were allowed to enter. The chief sacrifices were human victims, most probably the prisoners taken in war. The druids heightened the sanctity of their character by concealing the mysteries of their worship. They had the highest influence over the minds of the people, and thus found it easy to conjoin a civil authority with the sacerdotal; a policy which in the end led to the destruction of the druidical system; for the Romans found no other way of securing their conquests over any of the Celtic nations, but by exterminating the druids.

7. Whatever difference of manners there may have been among the various nations or tribes of Gothic origin, the great features of their character appear to have been the same. Nature, education, and prevailing habits, all concurred to form them for an intrepid and conquering people. Their bodily frame was invigorated by the climate which they inhabited; they were inured to danger and fatigue; war was their habitual occupation; they believed in an unalterable destiny, and were taught by their religion that a heroic sacrifice of life gave certain assurance of eternal happiness. How could a race of men so characterized fail to be the conquerors of the world?

SECTION XLVIII.

OF THE MANNERS, LAWS, AND GOVERNMENT OF THE GOTHIC NATIONS, AFTER THEIR ESTABLISHMENT IN THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

1. It has been erroneously supposed that the same ferocity of manners, which distinguished the Goths in their original seats, attended their successors in their new establishments in the provinces of the Roman empire. Modern authors have given a currency to this false supposition. Voltaire, in describing the middle ages, paints the Goths in all the characters of horror; as "a troop of hungry wolves, foxes, and tigers, driving before them the scattered timid herds, and involving all in ruin and desolation." The accounts of historians most worthy of credit will dissipate this injurious prejudice, and show those northern nations in a more favourable point of view, as not unworthy to be the successors of the Romans.

2. Before their settlement in the southern provinces of Europe, the Goths were no longer idolaters, but christians; and their morality was suitable to the religion which they professed. Salvianus, bishop of Marseilles, in the fifth century, draws a parallel between the manners of the Goths and of the Romans, highly to the credit of the former. Grotius, in his publication of Procopius and Jornandes, remarks, as a strong testimony to their honourable character as a nation, that no province once subdued by the Goths ever voluntarily withdrew itself from their government.

3. It is not possible to produce a more beautiful picture of an excellent administration than that of the Gothic monarchy in Italy under Theodoric the great. Though master of the country by

conquest, yet he was regarded by his subjects with the affection of a native sovereign. He retained the Roman laws, and, as nearly as possible, the ancient political regulations. In supplying all civil offices of state he preferred the native Romans. It was his care to preserve every monument of the ancient grandeur of the empire, and to embellish the cities by new works of beauty and utility. In the imposition and levying of taxes he showed the most humane indulgence on every occasion of scarcity or calamity. His laws were dictated by the most enlightened prudence and benevolence, and framed on that principle which he nobly inculcated in his instructions to the Roman senate, "*Benigni principis est, non tam delicta velle punire, quam tollere.*" *It is the duty of a benign prince to be disposed to prevent rather than to punish offences.* The historians of the times delight in recounting the examples of his munificence and humanity. Partial as he was to the Arian heresy, many even of the catholic fathers have done the most ample justice to his merits, acknowledging that, under his reign, the church enjoyed a high measure of prosperity. Such was Theodoric the great, who is justly termed by Sidonius Apollinaris, *Romanæ decus columenque gentis* (*the glory and the support of the Roman nation*).

4. But a single example could not warrant a general inference with regard to the merits of a whole people. The example of Theodoric is not single. If it does not find a complete parallel, it is at least nearly approached to in the similar characters of Alaric, Amalasonte, and Totila. Alaric, compelled by his enemy's breach of faith to revenge himself by the sack of Rome, showed even in that revenge a noble example of humanity. No blood was shed without necessity; the churches were inviolable asylums; the honour of the women was preserved; the treasures of the city were saved from plunder. Amalasonte, the daughter of Theodoric, repaired to her subjects the loss of her father, by the equity and wisdom of her administration. She trained her son to the study of literature and of every polite accomplishment, as the best means of reforming and enlightening his people. Totila, twice master of Rome, which he won by his arms after an obstinate resistance, imitated the example of Alaric in his clemency to the vanquished, and in his care to preserve every remnant of ancient magnificence from destruction. He restored the senate to its authority, adorned Rome with useful edifices, regulated its internal policy, and took a noble pride in reviving the splendour and dignity of the empire. *Habitavit cum Romanis*, says a contemporary author, *tanquam pater cum filiis. He lived with the Romans as a father with his children.*

5. The stem of the Gothic nation divided itself into two great branches, the Ostrogoths, who remained in Pannonia, and the Westrogoths or Visigoths, so termed from their migrating thence to the west of Europe. Italy was possessed by the latter under Alaric, and by the former under Theodoric. The Visigoths, after the death of Alaric, withdrew into Gaul, and obtained from Honorius the province of Aquitaine, of which Thoulouse was the capital. When expelled from that province by the Franks, they crossed the Pyrenees, and, settling in Spain, made Toledo the capital of their kingdom. The race of the Visigoth princes was termed the *Balti*, that of the Ostrogoths the *Amali*. The Ostrogoths enforced in their dominions the observance of the Roman laws; the Visigoths adhered to a code compiled by their own sovereigns, and founded on the ancient manners and usages of their nations. From this code, therefore, we may

derive much information relative to the genius and character of this ancient people.

6. It is enacted by the *laws of the Visigoths* that no judge shall decide in any lawsuit, unless he find in that book a law applicable to the case. All causes that fall not under this description are reserved for the decision of the sovereign. The penal laws are severe, but tempered with great equity. No punishment can affect the heirs of the criminal: *Omnia crimina suos sequantur auctores,—et ille solus judicetur culpabilis qui culpanda commiserit, et crimen cum illo qui fecerit moriatur. All crimes shall attach to their authors,—and he alone shall be judged culpable, who hath committed offences, and the crime shall die with him who hath committed it.* Death was the punishment of the murder of a freeman, and perpetual infamy of the murder of a slave. Pecuniary fines were enacted for various subordinate offences, according to their measure of criminality. An adulterer was delivered in bondage to the injured husband; and the free woman who had committed adultery with a married man, became the slave of his wife. No physician was allowed to visit a female patient, except in the presence of her nearest kindred. The *lex talionis* (*the law of retaliation*) was in great observance for such injuries as admitted it. It was even carried so far, that the incendiary of a house was burnt alive. The trials by judicial combat, by ordeal, and by the judgment of God, which were in frequent use among the Franks and Normans, had no place among the Visigoths. Montesquieu has erroneously asserted, that in all the Gothic nations it was usual to judge the litigants by the law of their own country; the Roman by the Roman law, the Frank by the law of the Franks, the Alleman by the law of the Alemans. On the contrary, the Visigoth code prohibits the laws of all other nations within their territories. *Nolumus sive Romanis legibus, sive alienis institutionibus, amplius convexari. We will not be controlled by the Roman laws, nor by foreign institutions.* The laws of the Franks and Lombards are remarkable for their wisdom and judicious policy.

7. The government of the Goths, after their settlement in the Roman provinces, was monarchical. It was at first elective, and afterwards became hereditary. The sovereign on his death-bed appointed his successor, with the advice or consent of his grandees. Illegitimacy did not disqualify from succession or nomination to the throne.

8. The dukes and counts were the chief officers under the Gothic government. The duke (*dux exercitus*) was the commander in chief of the troops of the province; the count (*comes*) was the highest civil magistrate. But these offices frequently intermixed their functions, the count being empowered, on sudden emergencies, to assume a military command, and the duke, on some occasions, warranted to exercise judicial authority. In general, however, their departments were distinct. Of *comites* there were various orders, with distinct official powers; as, *comes, cubiculi*, chamberlain, *comes stabuli*, constable, &c. These various officers were the *proceres* or grandees of the kingdom, by whose advice the sovereign conducted himself in important matters of government, or in the nomination of his successor; but we do not find that they had a voice in the framing of laws, or in the imposition of taxes; and the prince himself had the sole nomination to all offices of government, magistracies, and dignities.

SECTION XLIX.

METHOD OF STUDYING ANCIENT HISTORY.

1. A GENERAL and concise view of ancient history may be acquired by the perusal of a very few books; as that part of the *Cours d' Etude* of the Abbe Condillac which regards the history of the nations of antiquity; the Elements of General History by the Abbe Millot, part 1st; the Epitome of Turselline, with the notes of L'Agneau, part 1st; or the excellent *Compendium Historiæ Universalis*, by professor Offerhaus of Groningen. The two first of these works have the merit of uniting a spirit of reflection with a judicious selection of events. The notes of L'Agneau to the Epitome of Turselline contain a great store of geographical and biographical information. The work of Offerhaus is peculiarly valuable, as uniting sacred with profane history, and containing most ample references to the ancient authors. The *Discours sur l'Histoire Universelle*, by the bishop of Meaux, is a work of high merit, but is not adapted to convey information to the uninstructed. It is more useful to those who have already studied history in detail, for uniting in the mind the great current of events, and recalling to the memory their order and connexion.

But the student who wishes to derive the most complete advantage from history, must not confine himself to such general or compendious views; he must resort to the original historians of ancient times, and to the modern writers who have treated with amplitude of particular periods. It may be useful to such students to point out the order in which those historians may be most profitably perused.

2. Next to the historical books of the Old Testament, the most ancient history worthy of perusal is that of Herodotus, which comprehends the annals of Lydia, Ionia, Lycia, Egypt, Persia, Greece, and Macedonia, during above 230 years preceding 479 A. C.

Book 1. History of Lydia from Gyges to Crœsus. Ancient Ionia. Manners of the Persians, Babylonians, &c. History of Cyrus the Elder.

B. 2. History of Egypt, and Manners of the Egyptians.

B. 3. History of Cambyses. Persian Monarchy under Darius Hystaspes.

B. 4. History of Scythia.

B. 5. Persian Embassy to Macedon. Athens, Lacedæmon, Corinth, at the same period.

B. 6. Kings of Lacedæmon. War of Persia against Greece, to the battle of Marathon.

B. 7. The same War, to the battle of Thermopylæ.

B. 8. The Naval Battle of Salamis.

B. 9. The Defeat and Expulsion of the Persians from Greece.

(The merits of Herodotus are shortly characterized in Sect. XXII, § 1.)

3. A more particular account of the periods treated by Herodotus may be found in Justin, lib. 1, 2, 3, and 7; in the Cyropedia of Xenophon; in the Lives of Aristides, Themistocles, Cimon, Miltiades, and Pausanias, written by Plutarch and Cornelius Nepos; and in the lives of Anaximander, Zeno, Empedocles, Heraclitus, and Democritus, by Diogenes Laertius.

4. The Grecian history is taken up by Thucydides from the period where Herodotus ends, and is continued for seventy years, to the twenty-first of the Peloponnesian war. (This work characterized, Sect. XXII, § 2.) This period is more amply illustrated by perusing the 11th and 12th books of Diodorus Siculus; the Lives of Alcibiades, Chabrias, Thrasybulus, and Lysias, by Plutarch and Nepos; the 2d, 3d, 4th, and 5th books of Justin; and the 14th and 15th chapters of the 1st book of Orosius.

5. Next to Thucydides the student ought to peruse the 1st and 2d books of Xenophon's History of Greece, which comprehends the narrative of the Peloponnesian war, with the contemporary history of the Medes and Persians; then the expedition of Cyrus (*Anabasis*), and the continuation of the history to its conclusion with the battle of Mantinea. (Xenophon characterized, Sect. XXII, § 3.) For illustrating this period we have the Lives of Lysander, Agesilaus, Artaxerxes, Conon, and Datames, by Plutarch and Nepos; the 4th, 5th, and 6th books of Justin; and the 13th and 16th books of Diodorus Siculus.

6. After Xenophon let the student read the 15th and 16th books of Diodorus, which contain the history of Greece and Persia, from the battle of Mantinea to the reign of Alexander the great. (Diodorus characterized, Sect. XXII, § 5.) To complete this period let him read the Lives of Dion, Iphicrates, Timotheus, Phocion, and Timoleon, by Nepos.

7. For the history of Alexander the great we have the admirable works of Arrian and Quintus Curtius. (Arrian characterized, Sect. XXII, § 8.) Curtius possesses great judgment in the selection of facts, with much elegance and perspicuity of diction. He is a good moralist and a good patriot; but his passion for embellishment derogates from the purity of history, and renders his authority suspicious.

8. For the continuation of the history of Greece from the death of Alexander, we have the 18th, 19th, and 20th books of Diodorus; the history of Justin from the 13th book to the end; and the Lives of the principal personages written by Plutarch. The history of Justin is a judicious abridgment of a much larger work by Trogus Pompeius, which is lost. Justin excels in the delineation of characters, and in purity of style.

9. I have mentioned the Lives of Plutarch and Cornelius Nepos as the best supplement to the account of particular periods of ancient history. It is the highest praise of Plutarch that his writings are admirable for their morality, and furnish instructive lessons of active virtue. He makes us familiarly acquainted with the great men of antiquity, and chiefly delights in painting their private character and manners. The short Lives written by Nepos show great judgment, and a happy selection of such facts as display the genius and character of his heroes. They are written with purity and elegance.

10. For the Roman history in its early periods we have the Antiquities of Dionysius of Halicarnassus, which bring down the history of Rome to 412 A. U. C. They are chiefly valuable, as illustrating the manners and customs, the rites civil and religious, and the laws of the Roman state. But the writer is too apt to frame hypotheses, and to give views instead of narratives. We expect these in the modern writers who treat of ancient times, but cannot tolerate them in the sources of history.

11. The work of Livy is far more valuable than that of Dionysius. It is a perfect model of history, both as to matter and compo-

sition. (Characterized, Sect. XXXVI, § 10.) Of 132 books only 35 remain, and those are interrupted by a considerable chasm. The first decade (or ten books) treats of a period of 460 years; the second decade, containing seventy-five years, is lost; the third contains the second Punic war, including eighteen years; the fourth contains the war against Philip of Macedon, and the Asiatic war against Antiochus, a space of twenty-three years. Of the fifth decade there are only five books; and the remainder, which reaches to the death of Drusus, 746, A. U. C. together with the second decade, have been supplied by Freinshemius. To supply the chasm of the second decade the student ought to read, together with the epitome of those lost books, the first and second books of Polybius; the 17th, 18th, 22d, and 23d books of Justin; the lives of Marcellus and Fabius Maximus by Plutarch; and the Punic and Illyrian wars by Appian.

12. The history of Polybius demands a separate and attentive perusal, as an admirable compendium of political and military instruction. Of forty books of general history we have only five entire, and excerpts of the following twelve. Polybius treats of the history of the Romans, and of the nations with whom they were at war, from the beginning of the second Punic war to the beginning of the war with Macedonia, comprising in all a period of about fifty years. Of the high estimation in which Polybius was held by the authors of antiquity we have sufficient proof in the encomiums bestowed on him by Cicero, Strabo, Josephus, and Plutarch; and in the use which Livy has made of his history, in adopting his narratives by a translation nearly literal.

13. The work of Appian, which originally consisted of twenty books, from the earliest period of the Roman history down to the age of Adrian, is greatly mutilated; and there remains only his account of the Syrian, Parthian, Mithridatic, Spanish, Punic, and Illyrian wars. His narrative of each of these wars is remarkably distinct and judicious; and his composition, on the whole, is chaste and perspicuous. After the history of Appian the student should resume Livy, from the beginning of the third decade, or 21st book, to the end. Then he may peruse with advantage the Lives of Hannibal, Scipio Africanus, Flaminius, Paulus Æmilius, the elder Cato, the Gracchi, Marius, Sylla, the younger Cato, Sertorius, Lucullus, Julius Cæsar, Cicero, Pompey, and Brutus, by Plutarch.

14. Sallust's histories of the Jugurthine war and of the conspiracy of Catiline come next in order. (Sallust characterized, Sect. XXXVI, § 8.) Then follow the Commentaries of Cæsar, remarkable for perspicuity of narration, and a happy union of brevity with elegant simplicity of style. (Sect. XXXIV, § 9.) The epitomes of Florus and of Velleius Paterculus may be perused with advantage at this period of the course. The latter is a model for abridgment of history, in the opinion of the president Henault.

15. For the history of Rome under the first emperors we have Suetonius and Tacitus; and for the subsequent reigns, the series of the minor historians, termed *Historiæ Augustæ Scriptores* (*writers of august history*), and the Byzantine writers. Suetonius gives us a series of detached characters, illustrated by an artful selection of facts and anecdotes, rather than a regular history. His work is chiefly valuable as descriptive of Roman manners. His genius has too much of the caustic humour of a satirist. Tacitus, with greater powers and deeper penetration, has drawn a picture of the times in stern and gloomy colours. (Sect. XXXVI, § 11.) From neither of these his-

torians will the ingenuous mind of youth receive moral improvement, or pleasing and benevolent impressions; yet we cannot deny their high utility to the student of politics.

16. If we except Herodian, who wrote with taste and judgment, it is doubtful whether any of the subsequent writers of the Roman history deserve a minute perusal. It is therefore advisable for the student to derive his knowledge of the history of the decline and fall of the Roman empire from modern authors, resorting to the original writers only for occasional information on detached points of importance. For this purpose, the General History by Dr. Howel is a work of great utility, being written entirely on the basis of the original historians, whose narrative he generally translates, referring constantly to his authorities in the margin. In this work the student will find a valuable mass of historical information.

17. The reader having thus founded his knowledge of general history on the original writers, will now peruse with great advantage the modern histories of ancient Greece and Rome by Mitford, Gillies, Gast, Hooke, Gibbon, and Furgusson; and will find himself qualified to form a just estimate of their merits, on which it is presumptuous to decide without such preparatory knowledge.

18. The greatest magazine of historical information which has ever been collected into one body, is the English Universal History; a most useful work, from the amplitude of its matter, its general accuracy, and constant reference to the original authors. We may occasionally consult it with great advantage on points where deep research is necessary; but we cannot read it with pleasure as a continued work, from its tedious details and harshness of style, its abrupt transitions, and the injudicious arrangement of many of its parts.

19. Geography and chronology have been justly termed the *lights* of history. We cannot peruse with advantage the historical annals of any country without a competent knowledge of its geographical situation, and even of its particular topography. In reading the description of any event the mind necessarily forms a picture of the scene of action; and it is surely better to draw the picture with truth from nature and reality, than falsely from imagination. Many actions and events are likewise intimately connected with the geography and local circumstances of a country, and are unintelligible without a knowledge of them.

20. The use of chronological tables is very great, both for the purpose of uniting in one view the contemporary events in different nations, which often have an influence on one another, and for recalling to the memory the order and series of events, and renewing the impressions of the objects of former study. It is extremely useful, after perusing the history of a nation in detail or that of a certain age or period, to run over briefly the principal occurrences in a table of chronology. The most perfect works of this kind are the chronological tables of Dr. Playfair, which unite history and biography; the tables of Dr. Blair; or the older tables by Tallent.*

END OF PART FIRST.

* A list of the best translations of the principal books above mentioned.
Herodotus, translated by Beloe, 4 vols. 8vo.
Xenophon's Cycropedia by Cooper, 8vo.
Xenophon's Anabasis, by Spelman, 2 vols. 8vo.
Xenophon's History of Greece, by Smith, 4to.

PART SECOND.

MODERN HISTORY.

SECTION I.

OF ARABIA, AND THE EMPIRE OF THE SARACENS.

1. The fall of the western empire of the Romans, and the final subjugation of Italy by the Lombards, is the æra from which we date the commencement of Modern History.

The eastern empire of the Romans continued to exist for many ages after this period, still magnificent, though in a state of comparative weakness and degeneracy. Towards the end of the sixth century a new dominion arose in the east, which was destined to produce a wonderful change on a great portion of the globe.

The Arabians, at this time a rude nation, living chiefly in independent tribes, who traced their descent from the patriarch Abraham, professed a mixed religion, compounded of Judaism and idolatry. Mecca, their holy city, rose to eminence from the donations of pilgrims to its temple, in which was deposited a black stone, an object of high veneration. Mahomet was born at Mecca, A. D. 571. Of mean descent, and no education, but of great natural talents, he sought to raise himself to celebrity, by feigning a divine mission to propagate a new religion for the salvation of mankind. He retired to the desert, and pretended to hold conferences with the angel Gabriel, who delivered to him, from time to time, portions of a sacred book or *Coran*, containing revelations of the will of the Supreme Being, and of the doctrines which he required his prophet to communicate to the world.

2. This religion, while it adopted in part the morality of christianity, retained many of the rites of Judaism, and some of the Arabian superstitions, as the pilgrimage to Mecca; but owed to a certain spirit

Plutarch, by Langhorne, 6 vols. 8vo., or 6 vols. 12mo. Wrangham's edition.
Thucydides, by Smith, 2 vols. 8vo.
Dionysius Halicarnassus, by Spelman, 4 vols. 4to.
Polybius, by Hampton, 4 vols. 8vo.
Livy, by Baker, 6 vols. 8vo.
Sallust, by Murphy, 8vo.; by Stuart, 2 vols. 4to.; by Rose, 8vo.
Tacitus, by Murphy, 3 vols. 8vo.; Irish edition, 4 vols. 8vo.
Suetonius, by Thompson, 8vo.
Diodorus Siculus, by Booth, folio.
Arrian, by Rook, 2 vols. 8vo.
Q. Curtius, by Digby, 2 vols. 12mo.
Justin, by Turnbull, 12mo. EDITOR.

of Asiatic voluptuousness its chief recommendation to its votaries. The Coran taught the belief of one God, whose will and power were constantly exerted towards the happiness of his creatures; that the duty of man was to love his neighbours, assist the poor, protect the injured, to be humane to inferior animals, and to pray seven times a day. The pious mussulman was allowed to have four wives, and as many concubines as he chose; and the pleasures of love were promised as the supreme joys of paradise. To revive the impression of these laws, which God had engraven originally in the hearts of men, he had sent from time to time his prophets upon earth, Abraham, Moses, Jesus Christ, and Mahomet; the last the greatest, to whom all the world should owe its conversion to the true religion. By producing the Coran in detached parcels, Mahomet had it in his power to solve all objections by new revelations.

3. Dissensions and popular tumults between the believers and infidels caused the banishment of Mahomet from Mecca. His flight, called the *hegyra*, A. D. 622, is the æra of his glory. He retired to Medina, and was joined by the brave Omar. He propagated his doctrines with great success, and marched with his followers in arms, and took the city of Mecca. In a few years he subdued all Arabia; and then attacking Syria, took several of the Roman cities. In the midst of his victories he died at the age of sixty-one, A. D. 632. He had nominated Ali, his son-in-law, his successor; but Abubeker, his father-in-law, secured the succession by gaining the army to his interest.

4. Abubeker united and published the books of the Coran, and prosecuted the conquests of Mahomet. He defeated the army of Heraclius, took Jerusalem, and subjected all the country between Mount Libanus and the Mediterranean. On his death Omar was elected to the caliphate, and in one campaign deprived the Greek empire of Syria, Phœnicia, Mesopotamia, and Chaldæa. In the next campaign he subdued to the mussulman dominion and religion, the whole empire of Persia. His generals at the same time conquered Egypt, Libya, and Numidia.

5. Otman, the successor of Omar, added to the dominion of the caliphs Bactriana, and part of Tartary, and ravaged Rhodes and the Greek islands. His successor was Ali, the son-in-law of Mahomet, a name to this day revered by the Mahometans. He transferred the seat of the caliphate from Mecca to Couffa, whence it was afterwards removed to Bagdat. His reign was glorious, but only of five years' duration. In the space of half a century from the beginning of the conquests of Mahomet, the Saracens raised an empire more extensive than what remained of the Roman. Nineteen caliphs of the race of Omar (*Ommiades*) reigned in succession, after which began the dynasty of the *Abassides*, descended by the male line from Mahomet. Almanzor, second caliph of this race, removed the seat of empire to Bagdat, and introduced learning and the culture of the sciences, which his successors continued to promote with equal zeal and liberality. Haroun Alraschid, who flourished in the beginning of the ninth century, is celebrated as a second Augustus. The sciences chiefly cultivated by the Arabians were, medicine, geometry, and astronomy. They improved the oriental poetry, by adding regularity to its fancy and luxuriancy of imagery.

SECTION II.

MONARCHY OF THE FRANKS.

1. The Franks were originally those tribes of Germans who inhabited the districts lying on the Lower Rhine and Weser, and who, in the time of Tacitus, passed under the names of Chauci, Cherusci, Catti, Sicambri, &c. They assumed or received the appellation of *Franks*, or freemen, from their temporary union to resist the dominion of the Romans. Legendary chronicles record a Pharamond and a Meroveus; the latter the head of the first race of the kings of France, termed the Merovingian; but the authentic history of the Franks commences only with his grandson Clovis, who began his reign in the year 481. In the twentieth year of his age Clovis achieved the conquest of Gaul, by the defeat of Syagrius the Roman governor; and marrying Clotilda, daughter of Chilperic king of Burgundy, soon added that province to his dominions, by dethroning his father-in-law. He was converted by Clotilda; and the Franks, till then idolaters, became christians, after their sovereign's example. The Visigoths, professing Arianism, were masters at this time of Aquitaine, the country between the Rhone and Loire. The intemperate zeal of Clovis prompted the extirpation of those heretics, who retreated across the Pyrenees into Spain; and the provinces of Aquitaine became part of the kingdom of the Franks. They did not long retain it, for Theodoric the great defeated Clovis in the battle of Arles, and added Aquitaine to his dominions. Clovis died A. D. 511.

2. His four sons divided the monarchy, and were perpetually at war with one another. A series of weak and wicked princes succeeded, and Gaul for some ages was characterized under its Frank sovereigns by more than ancient barbarism. On the death of Dagobert II, A. D. 638, who left two infant sons, the government, during their minority, fell into the hands of their chief officers, termed mayors of the palace; and these ambitious men founded a new power, which for some generations held the Frank sovereigns in absolute subjection, and left them little more than the title of king. Austrasia and Neustria, the two great divisions of the Frank monarchy, were nominally governed by Thierry, but in reality by Pepin Heristel, mayor of the palace, who, restricting his sovereign to a small domain, ruled France for thirty years with great wisdom and good policy. His son, Charles Martel, succeeded to his power, and under a similar title governed for twenty-six years with equal ability and success. He was victorious over all his domestic foes. His arms kept in awe the surrounding nations, and he delivered France from the ravages of the Saracens, whom he entirely defeated between Tours and Poictiers, A. D. 732.

3. Charles Martel bequeathed the government of France, as an undisputed inheritance, to his two sons, Pepin le bref and Carloman, who governed, under the same title of mayor, one Austrasia, and the other Neustria and Burgundy. On the resignation of Carloman, Pepin succeeded to the sole administration. Ambitious of adding the title of king to the power which he already enjoyed, he proposed the question to pope Zachary, whether he or his sovereign Childeric was most worthy of the throne? Zachary, who had his interest in view, decided that Pepin had a right to add the title of king to the office; and Childeric was confined to a monastery for life. With

him ended the first or Merovingian race of the kings of France, A. D. 751.

4. Pepin recompensed the service done him by the pope, by turning his arms against the Lombards. He deprived them of the exarchate of Ravenna, and made a donation of that and other considerable territories to the holy see, which were the first, as is alleged, of its temporal possessions. Conscious of his defective title, it was the principal object of Pepin le bref to conciliate the affections of the people whom he governed. The legislative power among the Franks was vested in the people assembled in their *champs de Mars*. Under the Merovingian race the regal authority had sunk to nothing, while the power of the nobles had attained to an inordinate extent. Pepin found it his best policy to acknowledge and ratify those rights, which he could not without danger have invaded; and thus, under the character of guardian of the powers of all the orders of the state, he exalted the regal office to its proper elevation, and founded it on the surest basis. On his death-bed he called a council of the grandees, and obtained their consent to a division of his kingdom between his two sons, Charles and Carloman. He died A. D. 768, at the age of fifty-three, after a reign of seventeen years from the death of Childeric III, and an administration of twenty-seven from the death of Charles Martel.

SECTION III.

REFLECTIONS ON THE STATE OF FRANCE DURING THE MEROVINGIAN RACE OF ITS KINGS. ORIGIN OF THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

1. The manners of the Franks were similar to those of the other Germanic nations described by Tacitus. Though under the command of a chief or king, their government was extremely democratical, and they acknowledged no other than a military subordination. The legislative authority resided in the general assembly, or *champs de Mars*, held annually on the 1st day of March; a council in which the king had but a single suffrage, equally with the meanest soldier. But, when in arms against the enemy, his power was absolute in enforcing military discipline.

2. After the establishment of the Franks in Gaul some changes took place from their new situation. They reduced the Gauls to absolute subjection; yet they left many in possession of their lands, because the new country was too large for its conquerors. They left them likewise the use of their existing laws, which were those of the Roman code, while they themselves were governed by the *salique* and *ripuarian* laws, ancient institutions in observance among the Franks before they left their original seats in Germany. Hence arose that extraordinary diversity of local laws and usages in the kingdom of France, which continued down to modern times, and gave occasion to numberless inconveniences.

3. The ancient Germans had the highest veneration for the priests or druids. It was natural that the Franks, after their conversion to christianity, should have the same reverence for their bishops, to whom accordingly they allowed the first rank in the national assembly. These bishops were generally chosen from among the native Gauls; for, having adopted from this nation their new religion, it was natural that their priests should be chosen from the same peo-

ple. The influence of the clergy contributed much to ameliorate the condition of the conquered Gauls, and to humanize their conquerors; and in a short space of time the two nations were thoroughly incorporated.

4. At this period a new system of policy is visible among this united people, which by degrees extended itself over most of the nations of Europe. This is *the feudal system.* By this expression is properly meant that tenure or condition on which the proprietors of land held their possessions, viz., an obligation to perform military service, whenever required by the chief or overlord to whom they owed allegiance.

Many modern writers attribute the origin of this institution or policy to the kings of the Franks, who, after the conquest of Gaul, are supposed to have divided the lands among their followers, on this condition of military service. But this notion is attended with insurmountable difficulties. For, in the first place, it proceeds on this false supposition, that the conquered lands belonged in property to the king, and that he had the right of bestowing them in gifts, or dividing them among his followers; whereas it is a certain fact, that among the Franks the partition of conquered lands was made by lot, as was the division even of the spoil or booty taken in battle; and that the king's share, though doubtless a larger portion than that of his captains, was likewise assigned him by lot. Secondly, if we should suppose the king to have made those gifts to his captains out of his own domain, the creation of a very few *beneficia* (*benefices*) would have rendered him a poorer man than his subjects. We must therefore have recourse to another supposition for the origin of the fiefs; and we shall find that it is to be traced to a source much more remote than the conquest of Gaul by the Franks.

5. Among all barbarous nations, with whom war is the chief occupation, we remark a strict subordination of the members of a tribe to their chief or leader. It was observed by Cæsar as peculiarly strong among the Gaulish nations, and as subsisting not only between the soldiers and their commander, but between the inferior towns or villages, and the canton or province to which they belonged. In peace every man cultivated his land, free of all taxation, and subject to no other burden but that of military service, when required by his chief. When the province was at war, each village, though taxed to furnish only a certain number of soldiers, was bound to send, on the day appointed for a general muster, all its males capable of bearing arms; and from these its rated number was selected by the chief of the province. This *clientela* (*vassalage*) subsisted among the Franks as well as among the Gauls. It subsisted among the Romans, who, to check the inroads of the barbarian nations, and to secure their distant conquests, were obliged to maintain fixed garrisons on their frontiers. To each officer in those garrisons it was customary to assign a portion of land as the pledge and pay of his service. These gifts were termed *beneficia*, and their proprietors *beneficiarii*. Plin. Ep. lib. 10, ep. 32. The *beneficia* were at first granted only for life. Alexander Severus allowed them to descend to heirs, on the like condition of military service.

6. When Gaul was overrun by the Franks, a great part of the lands was possessed on this tenure by the Roman soldiery, as the rest was by the native Gauls. The conquerors, accustomed to the same policy, would naturally adopt it in the partition of their new conquests; each man, on receiving his share, becoming bound to military service,

as a condition necessarily annexed to territorial property. With respect to those Gauls who retained their possessions, no other change was necessary but to exact the same obligation of military vassalage to their new conquerors, which they had rendered to their former masters the emperors, and, before the Roman conquest, to their native chiefs. Thus no other change took place but that of the overlord. The system was the same which had prevailed for ages.

7. But these *beneficia*, or fiefs, were personal grants, revocable by the sovereign or overlord, and reverting to him on the death of the vassal. The weakness of the Frank kings of the Merovingian race emboldened the possessors of fiefs to aspire at independence and security of property. In a convention held at Andeli in 587, to treat of peace between Gontran and Childebert II., the nobles obliged these princes to renounce the right of revoking their benefices, which henceforward passed by inheritance to their eldest male issue.

8. It was a necessary consequence of a fief becoming perpetual and hereditary, that it should be capable of subinfeudation; and that the vassal himself, holding his land of the sovereign by the tenure of military service, should be enabled to create a train of inferior vassals, by giving to them portions of his estate to be held on the same condition, of following his standard in battle, rendering him homage as their lord, and paying, as the symbol of their subjection, a small annual present, either of money or the fruits of their lands. Thus, in a little time, the whole territory in the feudal kingdoms was either held immediately and *in capite* of the sovereign himself, or mediately by inferior vassals of the tenants *in capite*.

9. It was natural in those disorderly times, when the authority of government and the obligation of general laws were extremely weak, that the superior or overlord should acquire a civil and criminal jurisdiction over his vassals. The *comites*, to whom, as the chief magistrates of police, the administration of justice belonged of right, paid little attention to the duties of their office, and shamefully abused their powers. The inferior classes naturally chose, instead of seeking justice through this corrupted channel, to submit their lawsuits to the arbitration of their overlord; and this jurisdiction, conferred at first by the acquiescence of parties, came at length to be regarded as founded on strict right. Hence arose a perpetual contest of jurisdiction between the greater barons in their own territories and the established judicatories; a natural cause of that extreme anarchy and disorder which prevailed in France during the greater part of the Merovingian period, and sunk the regal authority to the lowest pitch of abasement. In a government of which every part was at variance with the rest, it was not surprising that a new power should arise, which, in able hands, should be capable of bringing the whole under subjection.

10. The mayor of the palace, or first officer of the household, gradually usurped, under a series of weak princes, the whole powers of the sovereign. This office, from a personal dignity, became hereditary in the family of Pepin Heristel. His grandson, Pepin *le bref*, removed from the throne those phantoms of the Merovingian race, assumed the title of king, by the authority of a papal decree, and reigned for seventeen years with dignity and success. He was the founder of the second race of the French monarchs known by the name of the Carlovingian. See Kett's Elements of General Knowledge, vol. 1.

SECTION IV.

CHARLEMAGNE. THE NEW EMPIRE OF THE WEST.

1. Pepin *le bref*, with the consent of his nobles, divided, on his death-bed, the kingdom of France between his sons, Charles and Carloman, A. D. 768. The latter died a few years after his father, and Charles succeeded to the undivided sovereignty. In the course of a reign of forty-five years *Charlemagne* (for so he was deservedly styled) extended the limits of his empire beyond the Danube; subdued Dacia, Dalmatia, and Istria; conquered and subjected all the barbarous tribes to the banks of the Vistula; made himself master of a great portion of Italy; and successfully encountered the arms of the Saracens, the Huns, the Bulgarians, and the Saxons. His war with the Saxons was of thirty years' duration, and their final conquest was not achieved without an inhuman waste of blood. At the request of the pope, and to discharge the obligation of his father Pepin to the holy see, Charlemagne dispossessed Desiderius king of the Lombards of all his dominions, though allied to him by marriage; and put a final period to the Lombard dominion in Italy, A. D. 774.

2. He made his entry into Rome at the festival of Easter, was there crowned king of France and of the Lombards, and was, by pope Adrian I, invested with the right of ratifying the election of the popes. Irene, empress of the east, sought to ally herself with Charlemagne, by the marriage of her son Constantine to his daughter; but her subsequent inhuman conduct, in putting Constantine to death, gave ground to suspect the sincerity of her desire for that alliance.

3. In the last visit of Charlemagne to Italy he was consecrated emperor of the west by the hands of pope Leo III. It is probable that if he had chosen Rome for his residence and seat of government, and at his death had transmitted to his successor an undivided dominion, the great but fallen empire of the west might have once more been restored to lustre and respect. But Charlemagne had no fixed capital, and divided, even in his lifetime, his dominions among his children, A. D. 806.

4. The economy of government and the domestic administration of Charlemagne merit attention. Pepin *le bref* had introduced the system of annual assemblies or parliaments, held at first in March, and afterwards in May, where the chief estates of clergy and nobles were called to deliberate on the public affairs and the wants of the people. Charlemagne apointed these assemblies to be held twice in the year, in spring and in autumn. In the latter assembly all affairs were prepared and digested; in the former was transacted the business of legislation; and of this assembly he made the people a party, by admitting from each province or district twelve deputies or representatives. The assembly now consisted of three estates, each of which formed a separate chamber, and discussed apart the concerns of its own order. They afterwards united to communicate their resolutions, or to deliberate on their common interests. The sovereign was never present, unless when called to ratify the decrees of the assembly.

5. Charlemagne divided the empire into provinces, and the provinces into districts, each comprehending a certain number of coun-

ties. The districts were governed by royal envoys, chosen from the clergy and nobles, and bound to an exact visitation of their territories every three months. These envoys held annual conventions, at which were present the higher clergy and barons, to discuss the affairs of the district, examine the conduct of its magistrates, and redress the grievances of individuals. At the general assembly, or *champ de Mai*, the royal envoys made their report to the sovereign and states; and thus the public attention was constantly directed to all the concerns of the empire.

6. The private character of Charlemagne was most amiable and respectable. His secretary, Eginhart, has painted his domestic life in beautiful and simple colours. The economy of his family is characteristic of an age of great simplicity; for his daughters were assiduously employed in spinning and housewifery, and the sons were trained by their father in the practice of all manly exercises. This illustrious man died A. D. 814, in the seventy-second year of his age. Contemporary with him was Haroun Alraschid, caliph of the Saracens, equally celebrated for his conquests, excellent policy, and the wisdom and humanity of his government.

7. Of all the lawful sons of Charlemagne, Lewis the *debonnaire* was the only one who survived him, and who therefore succeeded without dispute to all the imperial dominions, except Italy, which the emperor had settled on Bernard, his grandson by Pepin, his second son.

SECTION V.

MANNERS, GOVERNMENT, AND CUSTOMS OF THE AGE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

1. In establishing the provincial conventions under the royal envoys, Charlemagne did not entirely abolish the authority of the ancient chief magistrates, the dukes and counts. They continued to command the troops of the province, and to make the levies in stated numbers from each district. Cavalry were not numerous in the imperial armies, twelve farms being taxed to furnish only one horseman with his armour and accoutrements. The province supplied six months' provisions to its complement of men, and the king maintained them during the rest of the campaign.

2. The engines for the attack and defence of towns were, as in former times, the ram, the balista, catapulta, testudo, &c. Charlemagne had his ships of war stationed in the mouths of all the larger rivers. He bestowed great attention on commerce. The merchants of Italy and the south of France traded to the Levant, and exchanged the commodities of Europe and Asia. Venice and Genoa were rising into commercial opulence; and the manufactures of wool, glass, and iron, were successfully cultivated in many of the principal towns in the south of Europe.

3. The value of money was nearly the same as in the Roman empire in the age of Constantine the great. The numerary livre, in the age of Charlemagne, was supposed to be a pound of silver, in value about 3l. sterling of English money. At present the livre is worth 10 1-2d. English. Hence we ought to be cautious in forming our estimate of ancient money from its name. From the want of

this caution have arisen the most erroneous ideas of the commerce, riches, and strength of the ancient kingdoms.

4. The *capitularia* (*statute-books*) of Charlemagne, compiled into a body A. D. 827, were recovered from oblivion in 1531 and 1545. They present many circumstances illustrative of the manners of the times. Unless in great cities there were no inns: the laws obliged every man to give accommodation to travellers. The chief towns were built of wood. The state of the mechanic arts was very low in Europe. The Saracens had made more progress in them. Painting and sculpture were only preserved from absolute extinction by the existing remains of ancient art. Charlemagne appears to have been anxious for the improvement of music; and the Italians are said to have instructed his French performers in the art of playing on the organ. Architecture was studied and successfully cultivated in that style termed the Gothic, which admits of great beauty, elegance, and magnificence. The composition of Mosaic appears to have been an invention of those ages.

5. The knowledge of letters was extremely low, and confined to a few of the ecclesiastics. Charlemagne gave the utmost encouragement to literature and the sciences, inviting into his dominions of France, men eminent in those departments from Italy, and from the Britannic isles, which, in those dark ages, preserved more of the light of learning than any of the western kingdoms. "*Neque enim silenda laus Britanniæ, Scotiæ, et Hiberniæ, quæ studio liberalium artium eo tempore antecellebant reliquis occidentalibus regnis; et cura præsertim monachorum, qui literarum gloriam, ubi ea languentem aut depressam, in iis regionibus impugnæ sociabant atque tuebantur.*" Murat. Antiq. Ital. Diss. 43. "*I must not omit the praise due to England, Scotland, and Ireland, which at that time excelled the other western kingdoms in the study of the liberal arts; and especially to the monks, by whose care and diligence the honour of literature, which in other countries was either languishing or depressed, was revived and protected in these.*" The scarcity of books in those times, and the nature of their subjects, as legends, lives of the saints, &c., evince the narrow diffusion of literature.

6. The pecuniary fines for homicide, the ordeal or judgment of God, and judicial combat, were striking peculiarities in the laws and manners of the northern nations, and particularly of the Franks. By this warlike, barbarous people, revenge was esteemed honourable and meritorious. The high-spirited warrior chastised or vindicated with his own hand the injuries which he had received or inflicted. The magistrate interfered, not to punish, but to reconcile, and was satisfied if he could persuade the aggressor to pay, and the injured party to accept, the moderate fine which was imposed as the price of blood, and of which the measure was estimated according to the rank, the sex, and the country of the person slain. But increasing civilization abolished those barbarous distinctions. We have remarked the equal severity of the laws of the Visigoths, in the crimes of murder and robbery; and even among the Franks, in the age of Charlemagne, deliberate murder was punished with death.

7. By their ancient laws, a party accused of any crime was allowed to produce compurgators, or a certain number of witnesses, according to the measure of the offence; and if these declared upon oath their belief of his innocence, it was held a sufficient exculpation. Seventy-two compurgators were required to acquit a murderer or an incendiary. The flagrant perjuries occasioned by this

absurd practice probably gave rise to the trial by ordeal, which was termed, as it was believed to be, the judgment of God. The criminal was ordered, at the option of the judge, to prove his innocence or guilt, by the ordeal of cold water, of boiling water, or red hot iron. He was tied hand and foot, and thrown into a pool, to sink or swim; he was made to fetch a ring from the bottom of a vessel of boiling water, or to walk barefooted over burning ploughshares. History records examples of those wonderful experiments having been made without injury or pain.

8. Another peculiarity of the laws and manners of the northern nations was judicial combat. Both in civil suits and in the trial of crimes, the party destitute of legal proofs might challenge his antagonist to mortal combat, and rest the cause upon its issue. This sanguinary and most iniquitous custom, which may be traced to this day in the practice of duelling, had the authority of law in the court of the constable and marshal, even in the last century, in France and England.

SECTION VI.

RETROSPECTIVE VIEW OF THE AFFAIRS OF THE CHURCH BEFORE THE AGE OF CHARLEMAGNE.

1. The Arian and Pelagian heresies divided the christian church for many ages. In the fourth century, Arius, a presbyter of Alexandria, maintained the separate and inferior nature of the second person of the trinity, regarding Christ as the noblest of created beings, through whose agency the Creator had formed the universe. His doctrine was condemned in the council of Nice, held by Constantine A. D. 325, who afterwards became a convert to it. For many centuries it had an extensive influence, and produced the sects of the Eunomians, Semi-Arians, Eusebians, &c.

2. In the beginning of the fifth century Pelagius and Cælestius, the former a native of Britain, the latter of Ireland, denied the doctrine of original sin, and the necessity of divine grace to enlighten the understanding, and purify the heart; and maintained the sufficiency of man's natural powers for the attainment of the highest degrees of piety and virtue. These tenets were ably combated by St. Augustine, and condemned by an ecclesiastical council, but have ever continued to find many supporters.

3. The most obstinate source of controversy in those ages was the worship of images; a practice which was at first opposed by the clergy, but was afterwards, from interested motives, countenanced and vindicated by them. It was, however, long a subject of division in the church. The emperor Leo the Isaurian, A. D. 727, attempted to suppress this idolatry, by the destruction of every statute and picture found in the churches, and by punishment of their worshippers; but this intemperate zeal rather increased than repressed the superstition. His son Constantine Copronymus, with wiser policy, procured its condemnation by the church.

4. From the doctrines of the Platonic and Stoic philosophy, which recommended the purification of the soul, by redeeming it from its subjection to the senses, arose the system of penances, mortification, religious sequestration, and monachism. After Constantine had put an end to the persecution of the christians, many conceived

it a duty to procure for themselves voluntary grievances and sufferings. They retired into caves and hermitages, and there practised the most rigorous mortifications of the flesh, by fasting, scourging, vigils, &c. This phrensy first showed itself in Egypt in the fourth century, whence it spread over all the east, a great part of Africa, and within the limits of the bishopric of Rome. In the time of Theodosius these devotees began to form communities or *cœnobia*, each associate binding himself by oath to observe the rules of his order. St. Benedict introduced monachism into Italy, under the reign of Totila; and his order, the Benedictine, soon became extremely numerous and opulent. Many rich donations were made by the devout and charitable, who believed that they profited by the prayers of the monks. Benedict sent colonies into Sicily and France, whence they soon spread over all Europe.

5. In the east, the *monachi solitarii* (solitary monks) were first incorporated into *cœnobia* by St. Basil, bishop of Cæsarea, in the middle of the fourth century; and some time before that period the first monasteries for women were founded in Egypt by the sister of St. Pacomo. From these, in the following age, sprung a variety of orders, under different rules. The rule of the canons regular was framed after the model of the apostolic life. To chastity, obedience, and poverty, the mendicants added the obligation of begging alms. The military religious orders were unknown till the age of the holy wars. (Sect. XVII, § 3.) The monastic fraternities owed their reputation chiefly to the little literary knowledge which, in those ages of ignorance, they exclusively possessed. (For the origin of monachism, see Varieties of Literature.)

6. In the fifth century arose a set of fanatics termed *stylites*, or pillar-saints, who passed their lives on the tops of pillars of various height. Simeon of Syria lived thirty-seven years, and died on a pillar sixty feet high. This phrensy prevailed in the east for many centuries. (For a curious account of the fanaticism of the Hindoos, see Tennant's Indian Recreations.)

7. Auricular confession, which had been abolished in the east in the fourth century, began to be in use in the west in the age of Charlemagne, and has ever since prevailed in the Romish church. The canonization of saints was, for near twelve centuries, practised by every bishop. Pope Alexander III, one of the most vicious of men, first claimed and assumed this right, as the exclusive privilege of the successor of St. Peter.

8. The conquests of Charlemagne spread christianity in the north of Europe; but all beyond the limits of his conquests was idolatrous. Britain and Ireland had received the light of christianity at an earlier period; but it was afterwards extinguished, and again revived under the Saxon heptarchy.

SECTION VII.

EMPIRE OF THE WEST UNDER THE SUCCESSORS OF CHARLEMAGNE.

1. The empire of Charlemagne, raised and supported solely by his abilities, fell to pieces under his weak posterity. Lewis (*le debonnaire*), the only survivor of his lawful sons, was consecrated emperor and king of the Franks at Aix la Chapelle, A. D. 816. Among the first

acts of his reign was the partition of his dominions among his children. To Pepin, his second son, he gave Aquitaine, a third part of the south of France; to Lewis, the youngest, Bavaria; and he associated his eldest son Lotharius with himself in the government of the rest. The three princes quarrelled among themselves, agreeing in nothing but in hostility against their father. They made open war against him, supported by pope Gregory IV. The pretence was, that the emperor having a younger son, Charles, born after this partition of his states, wanted to give him likewise a share, which could not be done but at the expense of his elder brothers. Lewis was compelled to surrender himself a prisoner to his rebellious sons. They confined him for a year to a monastery, till, on a new quarrel between Lewis the younger and Pepin, Lotharius once more restored his father to the throne: but his spirits were broken, his health decayed, and he finished, soon after, an inglorious and turbulent reign, A. D. 840.

2. The dissensions of the brothers still continued. Lotharius, now emperor, and Pepin his brother's son, having taken up arms against the two other sons of Lewis *le debonnaire*, Lewis of Bavaria and Charles the bald, were defeated by them in the battle of Fontenai, where 100,000 are said to have fallen in the field. The church in those times was a prime organ of the civil policy. A council of bishops immediately assembled, and solemnly deposed Lotharius. At the same time they assumed an equal authority over his conquerors, whom they *permitted* to reign, on the express condition of submissive obedience to the supreme spiritual authority. Yet Lotharius, though excommunicated and deposed, found means to accommodate matters with his brothers, who agreed to a new partition of the empire. By the treaty of Verdun, A. D. 843, the western part of France, termed Neustria and Aquitaine, was assigned to Charles the bald; Lotharius, with the title of emperor, had the nominal sovereignty of Italy, and the real territory of Lorraine, Franche Compte, Provence, and the Lyonnois; the share of Lewis was the kingdom of Germany.

3. Thus was Germany finally separated from the empire of the Franks. On the death of Lotharius, Charles the bald assumed the empire, or, as is said, purchased it from pope John VIII, on the condition of holding it as a vassal to the holy see. This prince, after a weak and inglorious reign, died by poison, A. D. 877. He was the first of the French monarchs who made dignities and titles hereditary. Under the distracted reigns of the Carlovingian kings, the nobles attained great power, and commanded a formidable vassalage. They strengthened themselves in their castles and fortresses, and bid defiance to the arm of government, while the country was ravaged and desolated by their feuds.

4. In the reign of Charles the bald, France was plundered by the Normans, a new race of Goths from Scandinavia, who had begun their depredations even in the time of Charlemagne, and were only checked in their progress by the terror of his arms. A. D. 843 they sailed up the Seine, and plundered Rouen; while another fleet entered the Loire, and laid waste the country and its vicinity, carrying, together with its spoils, men, women, and children, into captivity. In the following year they attacked the coasts of England, France, and Spain, but were repelled from the last by the good conduct and courage of its Mahometan rulers. In 845 they entered the Elbe, plundered Hamburgh, and penetrated far into Germany. Eric, king of Denmark, who commanded these Normans, sent once more a fleet into the Seine, which advanced to Paris. Its inhabitants fled, and the

city was burnt. Another fleet, with little resistance, pillaged Bourdeaux. To avert the arms of these ravagers, Charles the bald bribed them with money, and his successor, Charles the gross, yielded them a part of his Flemish dominions. These were only incentives to fresh depredation. Paris was attacked a second time, but gallantly defended by count Odo or Eudes, and the venerable bishop Goslin. A truce was a second time concluded; but the barbarians only changed the scene of their attack: they besieged Sens, and plundered Burgundy. An assembly of the states held at Mentz deposed the unworthy Charles, and conferred the crown on the more deserving Eudes: who, during a reign of ten years, bravely withstood the Normans. A great part of the states of France, however, refused his title to the crown, and gave their allegiance to Charles surnamed the simple.

5. Rollo, the Norman, in 912, compelled the king of France to yield him a large portion of the territory of Neustria, and to give him his daughter in marriage. The new kingdom was now called Normandy, of which Rouen was the capital.

SECTION VIII.

EMPIRE OF THE EAST DURING THE EIGHTH AND NINTH CENTURIES.

1. While the new empire of the west was thus rapidly tending to dissolution, the empire of Constantinople still retained a vestige of its ancient grandeur. It had lost its African and Syrian dependencies, and was plundered by the Saracens on the eastern frontier, and ravaged on the north and west by the Abari and Bulgarians. The capital, though splendid and refined, was a constant scene of rebellions and conspiracies; and the imperial family itself exhibited a series of the most horrid crimes and atrocities. One emperor was put to death in revenge of murder and incest; another was poisoned by his queen; a third was assassinated in the bath by his own domestics; a fourth tore out the eyes of his brother; the empress Irene, respectable for her talents, was infamous for the murder of her only son. Of such complexion was that series of princes who swayed the sceptre of the east nearly 200 years.

2. In the latter part of this period a most violent controversy was maintained respecting the worship of images, which were alternately destroyed and replaced according to the humour of the sovereign. The female sex was their most zealous supporter. This was not the only subject of division in the christian church; the doctrines of Maniches were then extremely prevalent, and the sword was frequently employed to support and propagate their tenets.

3. The misfortunes of the empire were increased by an invasion of the Russians from the Palus Mœotis and Euxine. In the reign of Leo, named the philosopher, the Turks, a new race of barbarians, of Scythian or Tartarian breed, began to make effectual inroads on its territories. About the same time its domestic calamities were aggravated by the separation of the Greek from the Latin church, of which we shall treat under the following section.

SECTION IX.

STATE OF THE CHURCH IN THE EIGHTH AND NINTH CENTURIES.

1. The popes had begun to acquire a temporal authority under Pepin *le bref* and Charlemagne, from the donations of territory made by those princes, and they were now gradually extending a spriritual jurisdiction over all the christian kingdoms. Nicholas I. proclaimed to the whole world his paramount judgment in appeal from the sentences of all spiritual judicatories; his power of assembling councils of the church, and of regulating it by the canons of those councils; the right of exercising his authority by legates in all the kingdoms of Europe, and the control of the pope over all princes and governors. Literary imposture gave its support to these pretences. Certain spurious epistles were written in the name of Isidorus, with the design of proving the justice of the claims of the pope; and the forgery of those epistles was not completely exposed till the sixteenth century. Among the prerogatives of the popes was the regulation of the marriages of all the crowned heads, by the extreme extension of the prohibitions of the canon law, with which they alone had the power of dispensing.

2. One extraordinary event (if true) afforded, in the ninth century, a ludicrous interruption to the boasted succession of regular bishops from the days of St. Peter, the election of a female pope, who is said to have ably governed the church for three years, till detected by the birth of a child. Till the reformation by Luther this event was not regarded by the catholics as incredible, nor disgraceful to the church: since that time its truth or falsehood has been the subject of keen controversy between the protestants and catholics; and the evidence for its falsehood seems to preponderate.

3. The church was thus gradually extending its influence, and its head arrogating the control over sovereign princes, who, by a singular interchange of character, seem, in those ages, to have fixed their chief attention on spiritual concerns. Kings, dukes, and counts, neglecting their temporal duties, shut themselves up in cloisters, and spent their lives in prayers and penances. Ecclesiastics were employed in all the departments of secular government; and they alone conducted all public measures and state negotiations, which of course they directed to the great objects of advancing the interests of the church, and establishing the paramount authority of the holy see.

4. At this period, however, when the popedom seemed to have attained its highest ascendancy, it suffered a severe wound in that remarkable schism which separated the patriarchates of Rome and Constantinople, or the Greek and Latin churches. The Roman pontiff had hitherto claimed the right of nominating the patriarch of Constantinople. The emperor Michael III. denied this right, and deposing the pope's patriarch, Ignatius, appointed the celebrated Photius in his stead. Pope Nicholas I. resented this affront with a high spirit, and deposed and excommunicated Photius, A. D. 863, who, in his turn, pronounced a similar sentence against the pope. The church was divided, each patriarch being supported by many bishops and their dependent clergy. The Greek and Latin bishops had long

differed in many points of practice and discipline, as the celibacy of the clergy, the shaving of their beards, &c.; but in reality the prime source of division was the ambition of the rival pontiffs, and the jealousy of the Greek emperors, unwilling to admit the control of Rome, and obstinately asserting every prerogative which they conceived to be annexed to the capital of the Roman empire. As neither party would yield in its pretensions, the division of the Greek and Latin churches became from this time permanent.

5. Amid those ambitious contests for ecclesiastical power and preeminence, the christian religion itself was disgraced, both by the practice and by the principles of its teachers. Worldly ambition, gross voluptuousness, and grosser ignorance, characterized all ranks of the clergy; and the open sale of benefices placed them often in the hands of the basest and most profligate of men. Yet the character of Photius forms an illustrious exception. Though bred a statesman and a soldier, and in both these respects of great reputation, he attained, by his singular abilities, learning, and worth, the highest dignity of the church. His *Bibliotheca* is a monument of the most various knowledge, erudition, and critical judgment.

SECTION X.

OF THE SARACENS IN THE EIGHTH AND NINTH CENTURIES.

1. In the beginning of the eighth century the Saracens subverted the monarchy of the Visigoths in Spain, and easily overran the country. They had lately founded in Africa the empire of Morocco, which was governed by Muza, viceroy of the caliph Valid Almanzor. Muza sent his general Tariph into Spain, who, in one memorable battle, fought A. D. 713, stripped the Gothic king Rodrigo of his crown and life. The conquerors, satisfied with the sovereignty of the country, left the vanquished Goths in possession of their property, laws, and religion. Abdallah the Moor married the widow of Rodrigo, and the two nations formed a perfect union. One small part of the rocky country of Asturia alone adhered to its christian prince, Pelagius, who maintained his little sovereignty, and transmitted it inviolate to his successors.

2. The Moors pushed their conquests beyond the Pyrenees; but division arising among their emirs, and civil wars ensuing, Lewis *le debonnaire* took advantage of the turbulent state of the country, and invaded and seized Barcelona. The Moorish sovereignty in the north of Spain was weakened by throwing off its dependence on the caliphs; and in this juncture the christian sovereignty of the Asturias, under Alphonso the chaste, began to make vigorous encroachments on the territory of the Moors. Navarre and Arragon, roused by this example, chose each a christian king, and boldly asserted their liberty and independence.

3. While the Moors of Spain were thus losing ground in the north, they were highly flourishing in the southern parts of the kingdom. Abdalrahman, the last heir of the family of the Ommiades (the Abassidæ now enjoying the caliphate), was recognized as the true representative of the ancient line by the southern Moors. He fixed the seat of his government at Cordova, which, for two centuries from that time, was the capital of a splendid monarchy. This period, from the middle of the eighth to the middle of the tenth century,

is the most brilliant æra of Arabian magnificence. Whilst Haroun Alraschid made Bagdat illustrious by the splendour of the arts and sciences, the Moors of Cordova vied with their brethern of Asia in the same honourable pursuits, and were undoubtedly at this period the most enlightened of the states of Europe. Under a series of able princes they gained the highest reputation, both in arts and arms, of all the nations of the west.

4. The Saracens were at this time extending their conquests in almost every quarter of the world. The Mahometan religion was professed over a great part of India, and all along the eastern and Mediterranean coast of Africa. The African Saracens invaded Sicily, and projected the conquest of Italy. They actually laid siege to Rome, which was nobly defended by pope Leo IV. They were repulsed, their ships were dispersed by a storm, and their army was cut to pieces, A. D. 848.

5. The Saracens might have raised an immense empire, if they had acknowledged only one head; but their states were always disunited. Egypt, Morocco, Spain, and India, had all their separate sovereigns, who continued to respect the caliph of Bagdat as the successor of the prophet, but acknowledged no temporal subjection to his government.

SECTION XI.

EMPIRE OF THE WEST AND ITALY IN THE TENTH AND ELEVENTH CENTURIES.

1. The empire founded by Charlemagne now subsisted only in name. Arnold, a bastard son of Carloman, possessed Germany. Italy was divided between Guy duke of Spoletto and Berengarius duke of Friuli, who had received these duchies from Charles the bald. France, though claimed by Arnold, was governed by Eudes. Thus the empire in reality consisted only of a part of Germany, while France, Spain, Italy, Burgundy, and the countries between the Maes and Rhine, were all subject to different powers. The emperors were at this time elected by the bishops and grandees, all of whom claimed a voice. In this manner Lewis the son of Arnold, the last of the blood of Charlemagne, was chosen emperor after the death of his father. On his demise Otho duke of Saxony, by his credit with his brother grandees, conferred the empire on Conrad duke of Franconia, at whose death Henry surnamed the fowler, son of the same duke Otho, was elected emperor, A. D. 918.

2. Henry I. (the fowler), a prince of great abilities, introduced order and good government into the empire. He united the grandees, and curbed their usurpations; built, embellished, and fortified the cities; and enforced with great rigour the execution of the laws in the repression of all enormities. He had been consecrated by his own bishops, and maintained no correspondence with the see of Rome.

3. His son Otho (the great), A. D. 938, again united Italy to the empire, and kept the popedom in complete subjection. He made Denmark tributary to the imperial crown, annexed the crown of Bohemia to his own dominions, and seemed to aim at a paramount authority over all the sovereigns of Europe.

4. Otho owed his ascendancy in Italy to the disorders of the papacy. Formosus, twice excommunicated by pope John VIII., had arrived at the triple crown. On his death his rival, pope Stephen VII., caused his body to be dug out of the grave, and, after trial for his crimes, condemned it to be flung into the Tiber. The friends of Formosus had interest to procure the deposition of Stephen, who was strangled in prison. They sought and found his body, and buried it. A succeeding pope, Sergius III., again dug up this ill-fated carcase, and threw it into the Tiber. Two infamous women, Marozia and Theodora, managed for many years the popedom, and filled the chair of St. Peter with their own gallants, or their adulterous offspring. Such was the state of the holy see, when Berengarius duke of Friuli disputed the sovereignty of Italy with Hugh of Arles. The Italian states and pope John XII., who took part against Berengarius, invited Otho to compose the disorders of the country. He entered Italy, defeated Berengarius, and was consecrated emperor by the pope, with the titles of Cæsar and Augustus; in return for which honours he confirmed the donations made to the holy see by his predecessors, Pepin, Charlemagne, and Lewis the debonnaire, A. D. 962.

5. But John XII. was false to his new ally. He made his peace with Berengarius, and both turned their arms against the emperor. Otho flew back to Rome, and revenged himself by the trial and deposition of the pope; but he had scarcely left the city, when John, by the aid of his party, displaced his rival Leo VIII. Otho once more returned, and took exemplary vengeance on his enemies, by hanging one half of the senate. Calling together the lateran council, he created a new pope, and obtained from the assembled bishops a solemn acknowledgment of the absolute right of the emperor to elect to the papacy, to give the investiture of the crown of Italy, and to nominate to all vacant bishoprics; concessions observed no longer than while the emperor was present to enforce them.

6. Such was the state of Rome and Italy under Otho the great; and it continued to be much the same under his successors for a century. The emperors asserted their sovereignty over Italy and the popedom, though with a constant resistance on the part of the Romans, and a general repugnance of the pope, when once established. In those ages of ecclesiastical profligacy it was not unusual to put up the popedom to sale. Benedict VIII. and John XIX., two brothers, publicly bought the chair of St. Peter, one after the other; and, to keep it in their family, it was purchased afterwards by their friends for Benedict IX., a child of twelve years of age. Three popes, each pretending regular election and equal right, agreed first to divide the revenues between them, and afterwards sold all their shares to a fourth.

7. The emperor Henry III., a prince of great ability, strenuously vindicated his right to supply the pontifical chair, and created three successive popes without opposition.

SECTION XII.

HISTORY OF BRITAIN FROM ITS EARLIEST PERIOD DOWN TO THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

1. The history of Britain has been postponed to this time, that it may be considered in one connected view from its earliest period to the end of the Anglo-Saxon government.

We strive not to pierce through that mist of obscurity which veils the original population of the British isles; remarking only, as a matter of high probability, that they derived their first inhabitants from the Celtæ of Gaul. Their authentic history commences with the first Roman invasion; and we learn from Cæsar and Tacitus, that the country was at that period in a state very remote from barbarism. It was divided into a number of small independent sovereignties, each prince having a regular army and a fixed revenue. The manners, language, and religion of the people, were the same as those of the Gallic Celtæ. The religion was the druidical system, whose influence pervaded every department of the government, and, by its power over the minds of the people, supplied the imperfection of laws.

2. Julius Cæsar, after the conquest of Gaul, turned his eyes towards Britain. He landed on the southern coast of the island, 55 A. C.; and meeting with most obstinate resistance, though on the whole gaining some advantage, he found himself obliged, after a short campaign, to withdraw for the winter into Gaul. He returned in the following summer with a great increase of force, an army of 20,000 foot, a competent body of horse, and a fleet of 800 sail. The independent chiefs of the Britons united their forces under Cassibelanus king of the Trinobantes, and encountering the legions with great resolution, displayed all the ability of practised warriors. But the contest was vain. Cæsar advanced into the country, burnt Verulamium, the capital of Cassibelanus, and, after forcing the Britons into articles of submission, returned to Gaul.

3. The domestic disorders of Italy gave tranquillity to the Britons for near a century; but, in the reign of Claudius, the conquest of the island was determined. The emperor landed in Britain and compelled the submission of the south-eastern provinces. Ostorius Scapula defeated Caractacus, who was sent prisoner to Rome. Suetonius Paulinus, the general of Nero, destroyed Mona (Anglesey, or as others think, Man), the centre of the druidical superstition. The Iceni (inhabitants of Norfolk and Suffolk), under their queen Boadicea, attacked several of the Roman settlements. London, with its Roman garrison, was burnt to ashes. But a decisive battle ensued, in which 20,000 of the Britons fell in the field, A. D. 61. Thirty years after, in the reign of Titus, the reduction of the island was completed by the Roman general, Julius Agricola. He secured the Roman province against invasion from the Caledonians, by walls and garrisons; and reconciled the southern inhabitants to the government of their conquerors, by the introduction of Roman arts and improvements. Under Severus the Roman province was extended far into the north of Scotland.

4. With the decline of the Roman power in the west, the southern Britons recovered their liberty, but it was only to become

the object of incessant predatory invasion from their brethren of the north. The Romans, after rebuilding the wall of Severus, finally bid adieu to Britain, A. D. 448. The Picts and Caledonians now broke down upon the south, ravaging and desolating the country, without a purpose of conquest, and merely, as it appears, for the supply of their temporary wants. After repeated application for aid from Rome without success, the Britons meanly solicited the Saxons for succour and protection.

5. The Saxons received the embassy with great satisfaction. Britain had been long known to them in their piratical voyages to its coasts. They landed to the amount of 1,600, under the command of Hengist and Horsa, A. D. 450; and joining the South Britons, soon compelled the Scots to retire to their mountains. They next turned their thoughts to the entire reduction of the Britons, and received large reinforcements of their countrymen. After an obstinate contest of near 150 years, they reduced the whole of England under the Saxon government. Seven distinct provinces became as many independent kingdoms.

6. The history of the Saxon heptarchy is uninteresting, from its obscurity and confusion. It is sufficient to mark the duration of the several kingdoms, till their union under Egbert. Kent began in 455, and lasted, under seventeen princes, till 827, when it was subdued by the West Saxons. Under Ethelbert, one of its kings, the Saxons were converted to christianity by the monk Augustine. Northumberland began in 597, and lasted, under twenty-three kings, till 792. East Anglia began in 575, and ended in 793. Mercia subsisted from 582 to 827. Essex had fourteen princes, from 527 to 747. Sussex had five kings before its reduction under the dominion of the West Saxons, about 600. Wessex (the country of the West Saxons) began in 519, and had not subsisted above eighty years, when Cadwaila, king of Wessex, conquered Sussex, and annexed it to his dominions. As there was no fixed rule of succession, it was the policy of the Saxon princes to put to death all the rivals of their intended successor. From this cause, and from the passion for celibacy, the royal families were nearly extinguished in the kingdoms of the heptarchy; and Egbert, prince of the West Saxons, remained the sole surviving descendant of the Saxon conquerors of Britain. This circumstance, so favourable to his ambition, prompted him to attempt the conquest of the heptarchy; and he succeeded in the enterprise. By his victorious arms and judicious policy all the separate states were united into one great kingdom, A. D. 827, near 400 years after the first arrival of the Saxons in Britain.

7. England, thus united, was far from enjoying tranquillity. The piratical Normans or Danes had for fifty years desolated her coasts, and continued, for some centuries after this period, to be a perpetual scourge to the country. Under Alfred (the great), grandson of Egbert, the kingdom was from this cause reduced to extreme wretchedness. The heroic Alfred in one year defeated the Danes in eight battles; but a new irruption of their countrymen forced him to solicit a peace, which these pirates constantly interrupted by new hostilities. Alfred was compelled to seek his safety for many months in an obscure quarter of the country, till the disorders of the Danish army offered a fair opportunity of attacking them, which he improved to the entire defeat of his enemies. He might have destroyed them all, but chose rather to spare and to incorporate them with his English subjects. This clemency did not restrain their countrymen from attempting a

new invasion. They were again defeated with immense loss; and the extreme severity which it was necessary to exercise against the vanquished, had the effect of suspending the Danish depredations for several wars.

8. Alfred, whether considered in his public or private character, deserves to be reckoned among the best and greatest of princes. He united the most enterprising and heroic spirit with consummate prudence and moderation, the utmost vigour of authority with the most engaging gentleness of manner, the most exemplary justice with the greatest lenity, the talents of the statesman and the man of letters with the intrepid resolution and conduct of the general. He found the kingdom in the most miserable condition to which anarchy, domestic barbarism, and foreign hostility, could reduce it: he brought it to a pitch of eminence surpassing, in many respects, the situation of its contemporary nations.

9. Alfred divided England into counties, with their subdivisions of hundreds and tithings. The tithing or decennary consisted of ten families, over which presided a tithing-man or borg-holder; and ten of these composed the hundred. Every house-holder was answerable for his family, and the tithing-man for all within his tithing. In the decision of differences the tithing-man had the assistance of the rest of his decennary. An appeal lay from the decennary to the court of the hundred, which was assembled every four weeks; and the cause was tried by a jury of twelve freeholders, sworn to do impartial justice. An annual meeting of the hundred was held for the regulation of the police of the district. The county-court, superior to that of the hundred, and consisting of all the freeholders, met twice a year, after Michaelmas and Easter, to determine appeals from the hundreds, and settle disputes between the inhabitants of different hundreds. The ultimate appeal from all these courts lay to the king in council; and the frequency of these appeals prompted Alfred to extreme circumspection in the appointment of his judges. He composed for the regulation of these courts, and of his kingdom, a body of laws, the basis of the common law of England.

10. Alfred gave every encouragement to the cultivation of letters, as the best means of eradicating barbarism. He invited, from every quarter of Europe, the learned to reside in his dominions, established schools, and is said to have founded the university of Oxford. He was himself a most accomplished scholar for the age in which he lived, as appears from the works which he composed: poetical apologues, the translation of the histories of Bede and Orosius; and of Boethius on the consolation of philosophy. In every view of his character we must regard Alfred the great as one of the best and wisest men that ever occupied the regal seat. He died at the age of fifty-three, A. D. 901, after a glorious reign of twenty-nine years and a half.

11. The admirable institutions of Alfred were partially and feebly enforced under his successors; and England, still a prey to the ravages of the Danes and intestine disorder, relapsed into confusion and barbarism. The reigns of Edward the elder, the son of Alfred, and of his successors, Athelstan, Edmund, and Edred, were tumultuous and anarchical. The clergy began to extend their authority over the throne, and a series of succeeding princes were the obsequious slaves of their tyranny and ambition. In the reign of Ethelred, A. D. 981, the Danes seriously projected the conquest of England: and led by Sweyn king of Denmark, and Olaus king of Norway, made a more

formidable descent, won several important battles, and were restrained from the destruction of London only by a dastardly submission, and a promise of tribute to be paid by the inglorious Ethelred. The English nobility were ashamed of their prince, and, seeing no other relief to the kingdom, made a tender of the crown to the Danish monarch. On the death of Sweyn, Ethelred attempted to regain his kingdom, but found in Canute, the son of Sweyn, a prince determined to support his claims. On the death of Ethelred, his son Edmund Ironside gallantly but ineffectually opposed Canute. At length a partition of the kingdom was made between Canute and Edmund, which, after a few months, the Danes annulled by the murder of Edmund, thus securing to their monarch Canute the throne of all England, A. D. 1,017. Edmund left two children, Edgar Atheling, and Margaret, afterwards wife to Malcolm Canmore, king of Scotland.

12. Canute, the most powerful monarch of his time, sovereign of Denmark, Norway, and England, swayed, for seventeen years, the sceptre of England with a firm and vigorous hand. He was severe in the beginning of his reign, while his government was insecure; but mild and equitable when possessed of a settled dominion. He left, A. D. 1,036, three sons, Sweyn, who was crowned king of Norway, Harold, who succeeded to the throne of England, and Hardicanute, sovereign of Denmark. Harold, a merciless tyrant, died in the fourth year of his reign, and was succeeded by Hardicanute, who, after a violent administration of two years, died in a fit of debauch. The English seized this opportunity of shaking off the Danish yoke, and conferred the crown on Edward, a younger son of Ethelred, rejecting the preferable right of Edgar Atheling, the son of Edmund, who, unfortunately for his pretensions, was, at this time abroad in Hungary. Edward, surnamed the confessor, A. D. 1,041, reigned weakly and inglorously for twenty-five years. The rebellious attempts of Godwin, earl of Wessex, aimed at nothing less than a usurpation of the crown; and on his death, his son Harold, cherishing secretly the same views of ambition, had the address to secure to his interest a very formidable party in the kingdom. Edward, to defeat these views, bequeathed the crown to William duke of Normandy, a prince whose great abilities and personal prowess had rendered his name illustrious over Europe.

13. On the death of Edward the confessor, 1,066, the usurper Harold took possession of the throne, which the intrepid Norman determined immediately to reclaim as his inheritance of right. He made the most formidable preparations, aided, in this age of romantic enterprise, by many of the sovereign princes, and a vast body of the nobility, from the different continental kingdoms. A Norwegian fleet of 300 sail entered the Humber (a river on the eastern coast of England). The troops were disembarked, and, after one successful engagement, were defeated by the English army in the interest of Harold. William landed his army on the coast of Sussex, to the amount of 60,000; and the English, under Harold, flushed with their recent success, hastily advanced to meet him, being imprudently resolved to venture all on one decisive battle. The total rout and discomfiture of the English army in the field of Hastings, on the 14th day of October, 1,066, and the death of Harold, after some fruitless attempts of further resistance, put William duke of Normandy in possession of the throne of England.

SECTION XIII.

OF THE GOVERNMENT, LAWS, AND MANNERS OF THE ANGLO-SAXONS.

1. The government, laws, and manners of the Anglo-Saxons have become a subject of inquiry to modern writers, as being supposed to have had influence in the formation of the British constitution. The government of the Saxons was the same as that of all the ancient Germanic nations, and they naturally retained, in their new settlement in Britain, a policy similar to their accustomed usages. Their subordination was chiefly military, the king having no more authority than what belonged to the general, or military leader. There was no strict rule of succession to the throne; for though the king was generally chosen from the family of the last prince, yet the choice usually fell on the person of the best capacity for government. In some instances the destination of the last sovereign regulated the choice. We know very little of the nature of the Anglo-Saxon government, or of the distinct rights of the sovereign and people.

2. One institution common to all the kingdoms of the heptarchy was the wittenagemot, or assembly of the wise men, whose consent was requisite for enacting laws, and ratifying the chief acts of public administration. The bishops and abbots formed a part of this assembly; also the aldermen, or earls, and governors of counties. The wites, or wise men, are discriminated from the prelates and nobility, and have by some been supposed to have been the representatives of the commons. But we hear nothing of election or representation in those periods, and we must therefore presume that they were merely landholders, or men of considerable estate, who, from their weight and consequence in the country, were held entitled, without any election, to take a share in the public deliberations.

3. The Anglo-Saxon government was extremely aristocratical; the regal authority being very limited, the rights of the people little known or regarded, and the nobility possessing much uncontrolled and lawless rule over their dependents. The offices of government were hereditary in their families, and they commanded the whole military force of their respective provinces. So strict was the *clientela* between these nobles and their vassals, that the murder of a vassal was compensated by a fine paid to his lord.

4. There were three ranks of the people, the nobles, the free, and the slaves. The nobles were either the king's thanes, who held their lands directly from the sovereign, or less thanes, who held lands from the former. One law of Athelstan declared, that a merchant who had made three voyages on his own account was entitled to the dignity of thane; another decreed the same rank to a ceorle, or husbandman, who was able to purchase five hides of land, and had a chapel, a kitchen, a hall, and a bell. The ceorles, or freemen of the lower rank, occupied the farms of the thanes, for which they paid rent; and they were removable at the pleasure of their lord. The slaves or villains were either employed in domestic purposes, or in cultivating the lands. A master was fined for the murder of his slave; and if he mutilated him, the slave recovered his freedom.

5. Under this aristocratical government there were some traces of

the ancient Germanic democracy. The courts of the decennary, the hundred, and the county, were a considerable restraint on the power of the nobles. In the county-courts the freeholders met twice a year to determine appeals by the majority of suffrages. The alderman presided in those courts, but had no vote: he received a third of the fines, the remaining two-thirds devolving to the king, which was a great part of the royal revenue. Pecuniary fines were the ordinary atonement for every species of crime, and the modes of proof were the ordeal by fire or water, or by compurgators. (Part II., Sect. V., § 7.)

6. As to the military force, the expense of defending the state lay equally on all the land, every five hides or ploughs being taxed to furnish a soldier. There were 243,600 hides in England, consequently the ordinary military force consisted of 48,720 men.

7. The king's revenue, besides the fines imposed by the courts, consisted partly of his demesnes or property-lands, which were extensive, and partly in imposts on boroughs and sea-ports. The Danegelt was a tax imposed by the states, either for payment of tribute exacted by the Danes, or for defending the kingdom against them. By the custom of gavelkind, the land was divided equally among all the male children of the deceased proprietor. Lands held by the tenure of Borough-English, on the death of the tenant, went to the youngest son, instead of the eldest. Book-land was that which was held by charter, and folk-land what was held by tenants removable at pleasure.

8. The Anglo-Saxons were behind the Normans in every point of civilization; and the conquest was therefore to them a real advantage, as it led to material improvement in arts, science, government, and laws.

SECTION XIV.

STATE OF EUROPE DURING THE TENTH, ELEVENTH, AND TWELFTH CENTURIES.

1. France, from the extent and splendour of its dominion under Charlemagne, had dwindled to a shadow under his weak posterity. At the end of the Carlovingian period France comprehended neither Normandy, Dauphine, nor Provence. On the death of Lewis V. (Fainéant), the crown ought to have devolved on his uncle, Charles of Brabant, as the last male of the race of Charlemagne; but Hugh Capet, lord of Picardy and Champagne, the most powerful of the French nobles, was elected sovereign by the voice of his brother peers, A. D. 987. The kingdom, torn by parties, suffered much domestic misery under the reign of Hugh, and that of his successor Robert; the victim of papal tyranny, for daring to marry a distant cousin without the dispensation of the church.

2. The prevailing passion of the times was pilgrimage and chivalrous enterprise. In this career of adventure the Normans most remarkably distinguished themselves. In 983 they relieved the prince of Salerno, by expelling the Saracens from his territory. They did a similar service to pope Benedict VIII., and the duke of Capua; while another band of their countrymen fought first against the Greeks, and afterwards against the popes, always selling their services to those who best rewarded them. William Fierabras, and his brothers, Humphrey, Robert, and Richard, kept the pope a prisoner

for a year at Benevento, and forced the court of Rome to yield Capua to Richard, and Apulia and Calabria to Robert, with the investiture of Sicily, if he should gain the country from the Saracens. In 1,101 Rogero the Norman completed the conquest of Sicily, of which the popes continued to be the lords paramount.

3. The north of Europe was in those periods extremely barbarous. Russia received the christian religion in the eighth century. Sweden, after its conversion in the ninth century, relapsed into idolatry, as did Hungary and Bohemia. The Constantinopolitan empire defended its frontiers with difficulty against the Bulgarians on the west, and against the Turks and Arabians on the east and north.

4. In Italy, excepting the territory of the popedom, the principalities of the independent nobles, and the states of Venice and Genoa, the greater part of the country was now in the possession of the Normans. Venice and Genoa were rising gradually to great opulence from commerce. Venice was for some ages tributary to the emperors of Germany. In the tenth century its doge assumed the title of duke of Dalmatia, of which the republic had acquired the property by conquest, as well as of Istria, Spalatro, Ragusa, and Narenza.

5. Spain was chiefly possessed by the Moors; the christians retaining only about a fourth of the kingdom, namely, Asturia, part of Castile and Catalonia, Navarre, and Arragon. Portugal was likewise occupied by the Moors. Their capital was Cordova, the seat of luxury and magnificence. In the tenth century the Moorish dominions were split among a number of petty sovereigns, who were constantly at war with one another. Such, unfortunately, was likewise the situation of the christian part of the kingdom; and it was no uncommon policy for the christian princes to form alliances with the Moors against one another. Besides these the country abounded with independent lords, who made war their profession, and performed the office of champions in deciding the quarrels of princes, or enlisted themselves in their service with all their vassals and attendants. Of these, termed *cavalleros andantes*, or knights-errant, the most distinguished was Rodrigo the cid, who undertook for his sovereign, Alphonso king of Old Castile, to conquer the kingdom of New Castile, and achieved it with success, obtaining the government of Valencia as the reward of his services.

6. The contentions between the imperial and papal powers made a distinguished figure in those ages. Henry III. vindicated the imperial right to fill the chair of St. Peter, and nominated three successive popes, without the intervention of a council of the church. But in the minority of his son Henry IV., this right was frequently interrupted, and Alexander II. kept his seat, though the emperor named another in his place. It was the lot of this emperor to experience the utmost extent of papal insolence and tyranny. After a spirited contest with Gregory VII., in which the pope was twice his prisoner, and the emperor as often excommunicated and deposed, Henry fell at length the victim of ecclesiastical vengeance. Urban II., a successor of Gregory, prompted the two sons of Henry to rebel against their father; and his misfortunes were terminated by imprisonment and death in 1,106. The same contests went on under a succession of popes and emperors, but ended commonly in favour of the former. Frederick I. (Barbarossa), a prince of high spirit, after an indignant denial of the supremacy of Alexander III., and a refusal of the customary homage, was at length compelled to kiss his feet, and appease his holiness by a large cession of territory. Pope Celestinus kicked

off the imperial crown of Henry VI., while doing homage on his knees, but made amends for this insolence by the gift of Naples and Sicily, from which Henry had expelled the Normans. These territories now became an appanage of the empire, 1,194. The succeeding popes rose on the pretensions of their predecessors, till at length Innocent III., in the beginning of the thirteenth century, established the power of the popedom on a settled basis, and obtained a positive acknowledgment of the papal supremacy, or the right *principaliter et finaliter* (*principally and finally*) to confer the imperial crown. It was the same pope Innocent whom we shall presently see the disposer of the crown of England in the reign of the tyrant John.

SECTION XV.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE ELEVENTH, TWELFTH, AND PART OF THE THIRTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. The consequence of the battle of Hastings was the submission of all England to William the conqueror. The character of this prince was spirited, haughty, and tyrannical, yet not without a portion of the generous affections. He disgusted his English subjects by the strong partiality which he showed to his Norman followers, preferring them to all offices of trust and dignity. A conspiracy arose from these discontents, which William defeated, and avenged with signal rigour and cruelty. He determined henceforward to treat the English as a conquered people, a policy that involved his reign in perpetual commotions, which, while they robbed him of all peace of mind, aggravated the tyranny of his disposition. To his own children he owed the severest of his troubles. His eldest son Robert rose in rebellion, to wrest from him the sovereignty of Maine; and his foreign subjects took part with the rebel. William led against them an army of the English, and was on the point of perishing in fight by his son's hand. Philip I. of France had aided this rebellion, which was avenged by William, who carried havoc and devastation into the heart of his kingdom, but was killed in the enterprise by a fall from his horse, 1,087. He bequeathed England to William his second son; to Robert he left Normandy; and to Henry, his youngest son, the property of his mother Matilda.

2. William the conqueror introduced into England the feudal law, dividing the whole kingdom, except the royal demesnes, into baronies, and bestowing the most of these, under the tenure of military service, on his Norman followers. By the forest laws he reserved to himself the exclusive privilege of killing game over all the kingdom; a restriction resented by his subjects above every other mark of servitude. Preparatory to the introduction of the feudal tenures, he planned and accomplished a general survey of all the lands in the kingdom, with a distinct specification of their extent, nature, value, names of their proprietors, and an enumeration of every class of inhabitants who lived on them. This most valuable record, called *Doomsday-book*, is preserved in the English exchequer, and is now printed.

3. William II. (Rufus) inherited the vices, without any of the virtues, of his father. His reign is distinguished by no event of importance, and, after the defeat of one conspiracy in its outset, pre-

sents nothing but a dull career of unresisted despotism. After a reign of thirteen years he was killed when hunting by the random shot of an arrow, 1,100. The crown of England would have devolved on his elder brother Robert; but his absence on a crusade in Palestine made way for the unopposed succession of his younger brother Henry, who, by his marriage with Matilda, the niece of Edgar Atheling, united the last remnant of the Saxon with the Norman line. With most criminal ambition, he now invaded his brother's dominions of Normandy; and Robert, on his return, was defeated in battle, and detained for life a prisoner in England. The crimes of Henry were expiated by his misfortunes. His only son was drowned in his passage from Normandy. His daughter Matilda, married first to the emperor Henry V., and afterwards to Geoffrey Plantagenet of Anjou, was destined to be his successor; but the popularity of his nephew Stephen, son of the count of Blois, defeated these intentions. Henry I. died in Normandy, after a reign of thirty-five years, A. D. 1,135; and, in spite of his destination to Matilda, Stephen seized the vacant throne. The party of Matilda, headed by her natural brother, the earl of Gloucester, engaged, defeated, and made Stephen prisoner. Matilda in her turn mounted the throne; but, unpopular from the tyranny of her disposition, she was solemnly deposed by the prevailing party of her rival; and Stephen was once more restored. He found, however, in Henry Plantagenet, the son of Matilda, a more formidable competitor. Of a noble and intrepid spirit, he resolved, while yet a boy, to reclaim his hereditary crown; and, landing in England, won by his prowess, and the favour of a just cause, a great part of the kingdom to his interest. By treaty with Stephen, who was allowed to reign for life, he secured the succession at his death, which soon after ensued, 1,154.

4. Henry II., a prince in every sense deserving of the throne, began his reign with the reformation of all the abuses of the government of his predecessors; revoking all impolitic grants, abolishing partial immunities, regulating the administration of justice, and establishing the freedom of the towns by charters, which are at this day the basis of the national liberty. Happy in the affections of his people, and powerful in the vast extent of additional territory which he enjoyed on the continent in right of his father and of his wife, the heiress of a great portion of France, his reign had every promise of prosperity and happiness; but from one fatal source these pleasing prospects were all destroyed. Thomas Becket was raised by Henry from obscurity to the office of chancellor of England. On the vacancy of the see of Canterbury the king, desirous of his aid in the correction of ecclesiastical abuses, conferred the primacy on his favourite; and the arrogant Becket availed himself of that authority to abase the prerogative of his sovereign, and exalt the spiritual power above the crown. It was disputed, whether a priest could be tried for a murder, and punished by the civil court. It was determined in the affirmative by the council of Clarendon, against the opinion of Becket. Pope Alexander III. annulled the decree of the council; and Becket, who took part with the pope, was deprived by Henry of all his dignities and estates. He avenged himself by the excommunication of the king's ministers; and Henry, in return, prohibited all intercourse with the see of Rome. At length both parties found it their interest to come to a good understanding. Becket was restored to favour, and reinstated in his primacy, when the increasing insolence of his demeanour drew from the king some hasty expressions of indignation, which his servants interpreted

into a sentence of proscription, and, trusting that the deed would be grateful to their master, murdered the prelate while in the act of celebrating vespers at the altar. For this shocking action Henry expressed the regret which he sincerely felt, and the pope indulgently granted his pardon, on the assurance of his dutiful obedience to the holy church.

5. The most important event of the reign of Henry II. was the conquest of Ireland. The Irish, an early civilized people, and among the first of the nations of the west who embraced the christian religion, were, by frequent invasions of the Danes, and their own domestic commotions, replunged into barbarism for many ages. In the twelfth century the kingdom consisted of five separate sovereignties, Ulster, Leinster, Munster, Meath, and Connaught; but these were subdivided among an infinite number of petty chiefs, owing a very weak allegiance to their respective sovereigns. Dermot Macmorrogh, expelled from his kingdom of Leinster for a rape on the daughter of the king of Meath, sought protection from Henry, and engaged to become his feudatory, if he should recover his kingdom by the aid of the English. Henry empowered his subjects to invade Ireland, and, while Strongbow earl of Pembroke and his followers were laying waste the country, landed in the island in 1,172, and received the submission of many of the independent chiefs. Roderick O'Connor, prince of Connaught, whom the Irish elected nominal sovereign of all the provinces, resisted for three years the arms of Henry, but finally acknowledged his dominion by a solemn embassy to the king at Windsor. The terms of the submission were, an annual tribute of every tenth hide of land, to be applied for the support of government, and an obligation of allegiance to the crown of England; on which conditions the Irish should retain their possessions, and Roderick his kingdom; except the territory of the Pale, or that part which the English barons had subdued before the arrival of Henry.

6. Henry divided Ireland into counties, appointed sheriffs in each, and introduced the laws of England into the territory of the Pale. The rest of the kingdom was regulated by their ancient laws, till the reign of Edward I., when, at the request of the nation, the English laws were extended to the whole kingdom. In the first Irish parliament, which was held in the same reign, sir John Wogan presided as deputy of the sovereign. From that time there was little intercourse between the two kingdoms for some centuries; nor was the island considered as fully subdued till the reign of Elizabeth and of her successor James I.

7. The latter part of the reign of Henry II. was clouded by domestic misfortunes. His children, Henry, Richard, Geoffrey, and John, instigated by their unnatural mother, rose in rebellion, and, with the aid of Louis VII., king of France, prepared to dethrone their father. While opposing them with spirit on the continent, his kingdom was invaded by the Scots under William (the lion). He hastened back to England, defeated the Scots, and made their king his prisoner. Two of his sons, Henry and Geoffrey, expiated their offences by an early death; but Richard, once reconciled, was again seduced from his allegiance, and, in league with the king of France, plundered his father's continental dominions. The spirit of Henry was unequal to his domestic misfortunes, and he died of a broken heart in the 58th year of his age, 1,189, an ornament to the English throne, and a prince surpassing all his contemporaries in the valuable qualities of a sovereign.

To him England owed her first permanent improvement in arts, in laws, in government, and in civil liberty.

8. Richard I. (cœur de lion) immediately on his accession embarked for the Holy Land, on a crusade against the infidels, after plundering his subjects of an immense sum of money to defray the charges of the enterprise. Forming a league with Philip Augustus of France, the two monarchs joined their forces, and acting for some time in concert, were successful in the taking of Acra or Ptolemais; but Philip, jealous of his rival's glory, soon returned to France, while Richard had the honour of defeating the heroic Saladin in the battle of Ascalon, with prodigious slaughter of his enemies. He prepared now for the siege of Jerusalem; but, finding his army wasted with famine and fatigue, he was compelled to end the war by a truce with Saladin, in which he obtained a free passage to the Holy Land for every christian pilgrim. Wrecked in his voyage homeward, and travelling in disguise through Germany, Richard was seized, and detained in prison, by command of the emperor Henry VI. The king of France ungenerously opposed his release, as did his unnatural brother John, from selfish ambition; but he was at length ransomed by his subjects for the sum of 150,000 merks, and, after an absence of nine years, returned to his dominions. His traitorous brother was pardoned after some submission; and Richard employed the short residue of his reign in a spirited revenge against his rival Philip. A truce, however, was concluded by the mediation of Rome; and Richard was soon after killed, while storming the castle of one of his rebellious vassals in the Limosin. He died in the tenth year of his reign, and forty-second of his age, 1,199.

9. John (lack-land) succeeded to the throne on the death of his brother, but found a competitor in his nephew Arthur, the son of Geoffrey, supported by Philip of France. War was of course renewed with that country. Arthur, with fatal confidence, throwing himself into the hands of his uncle, was removed by poison or the sword: a deed which, joined to the known tyranny of his character, rendered John the detestation of his subjects. He was stripped by Philip of his continental dominions, and he made the pope his enemy by an avaricious attack on the treasures of the church. After an ineffectual menace of vengeance, Innocent III. pronounced a sentence of interdict against the kingdom, which put a stop to all the ordinances of religion, to baptism, and the burial of the dead. He next excommunicated John, and absolved his subjects from their allegiance; and he finally deposed him, and made a gift of the kingdom to Philip. John, intimidated into submission, declared himself the pope's vassal, swore allegiance on his knees to the papal legate, and agreed to hold his kingdom tributary to the holy see. On these conditions, which ensured the universal hatred and contempt of his people, he made his peace with the church. It was natural that his subjects, thus trampled upon and sold, should vindicate their rights. The barons of the kingdom assembled, and, binding themselves by oath to a union of measures, resolutely demanded from the king a ratification of a charter of privileges granted by Henry I. John appealed to the pope, who, in support of his vassal, prohibited the confederacy of the barons as rebellious. The barons were only the more resolute in their purpose, and the sword was their last resource. At length John was compelled to yield to their demands, and signed at Runymede, on the 19th day of June, 1215, that solemn charter, which is the foundation and bulwark of English liberty, *Magna Charta* (*the great charter*).

10. By this great charter, 1, the freedom of election to benefices was secured to the clergy; 2, the fines to the overlord on the succession of vassals were regulated; 3, no aids or subsidies were allowed to be levied from the subject, without the consent of the great council, unless in a few special cases; 4, the crown shall not seize the lands of a baron for a debt, while he has personal property sufficient to discharge it; 5, all the privileges granted by the king to his vassals shall be communicated by them to their inferior vassals; 6, one weight and one measure shall be used throughout the kingdom; 7, all men shall pass from and return to the realm at their pleasure; 8, all cities and boroughs shall preserve their ancient liberties; 9, the estate of every freeman shall be regulated by his will, and, if he die intestate, by the law; 10, the king's court shall be stationary, and open to all; 11, every freeman shall be fined only in proportion to his offence, and no fine shall be imposed to his utter ruin; 12, no peasant shall, by a fine, be deprived of his instruments of husbandry; 13, no person shall be tried on suspicion alone, but on the evidence of lawful witnesses; 14, no person shall be tried or punished unless by the judgment of his peers and the law of the land.

11. John granted at the same time the *Charta de Foresta* (*the charter concerning forests*), which abolished the royal privilege of killing game over all the kingdom, and restored to the lawful proprietors their woods and forests, which they were now allowed to enclose and use at their pleasure. As compulsion alone had extorted these concessions, John was determined to disregard them, and a foreign force was brought into the kingdom to reduce the barons to submission. The barons applied for aid to France, and Philip sent his son Lewis to England with an army; and such was the people's hatred of their sovereign, that they swore allegiance to this foreigner. At this critical period John died at Newark, in 1,216, and an instant change ensued. His son Henry III., a boy of nine years of age, was crowned at Bristol; and his uncle, the earl of Pembroke, was appointed protector of the realm. The disaffected barons returned to their allegiance; the people hailed their sovereign; and Lewis with his army, after an ineffectual struggle, made peace with the protector, and evacuated the kingdom.

SECTION XVI.

STATE OF GERMANY AND ITALY IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

1. Frederick II., son of Henry VI., was elected emperor on the resignation of Otho IV., in 1,212. At this period Naples, Sicily, and Lombardy, were all appanages of the empire; and the contentions between the imperial and papal powers divided the states of Italy into factions, known by the name of Guelphs and Ghibellines; the former maintaining the supremacy of the pope, the latter that of the emperor. The opposition of Frederick to four successive popes was avenged by excommunication and deposition; yet he kept possession of his throne, and vindicated his authority with great spirit. Frequent attempts were made against his life, by assassination and poison, which he openly attributed to papal resentment. On his death, in 1,250, the splendour of the empire was for many years ob-

scured. It was a prey to incessant factions and civil war, the fruit of contested claims of sovereignty. Yet the popes gained nothing by its disorders, for the troubles of Italy were equally hostile to their ambition. We have seen the turbulent state of England. France was equally weak and anarchical; and Spain was ravaged by the contests of the Moors and christians. Yet, distracted as appears the situation of Europe, one great project gave a species of union to this discordant mass, of which we now proceed to give an account.

SECTION XVII.

THE CRUSADES, OR HOLY WARS.

1. The Turks or Turcomans, a race of Tartars from the regions of Mount Taurus and Imaus, invaded the dominions of Moscovy in the eleventh century, and came down upon the banks of the Caspian. The caliphs employed Turkish mercenaries, and they acquired the reputation of able soldiers in the wars that took place on occasion of the contested caliphate. The caliphs of Bagdat, the Abassidæ, were deprived of Syria, Egypt, and Africa, by their rival caliphs of the race of Omar; and the Turks stripped of their dominions both the Abassidæ and Ommiades. Bagdat was taken by the Turks, and the empire of the caliphs overthrown in 1,055; and these princes, from temporal monarchs, became now the supreme pontiffs of the Mahometan faith, as the popes of the christian. At the time of the first crusade, in the end of the eleventh century, Arabia was governed by a Turkish sultan, as were Persia and the greater portion of Lesser Asia.—The eastern empire was thus abridged of its Asiatic territory, and had lost a great part of its dominions in Europe. It retained, however, Greece, Macedonia, Thrace, and Illyria; and Constantinople itself was populous, opulent, and luxurious. Palestine was in the possession of the Turks; and its capital Jerusalem, fallen from its ancient consequence and splendour, was yet held in respect by its conquerors as a holy city, and constantly attracted the resort of Mahometans to the mosque of Omar, as of christian pilgrims to the sepulchre of our Saviour.

2. Peter the hermit, a native of Amiens, on his return from this pilgrimage, complained in loud terms of the grievances which the christians suffered from the Turks; and Urban II. pitched on this enthusiast as a fit person to commence the execution of a grand design which the popes had long entertained, of arming all christendom, and exterminating the infidels from the Holy Land. The project was opened in two general councils held at Placentia and Clermont. The French possessed more ardour than the Italians; and an immense multitude of ambitious and disorderly nobles, with all their dependents, eager for enterprise and plunder, and assured of eternal salvation, immediately took the cross. Peter the hermit led 80,000 under his banners, and they began their march towards the east in 1,095. Their progress was marked by rapine and hostility in every christian country through which they passed; and the army of the hermit, on its arrival at Constantinople, was wasted down to 20,000. The emperor Alexius Comnenus, to whom the crusaders behaved with the most provoking insolence and folly, conducted himself with admirable moderation and good sense. He hastened to get rid of this disorderly multitude, by furnishing them with every aid which

they required, and cheerfully lent his ships to transport them across the Bosphorus. The sultan Solyman met them in the plain of Nicea, and destroyed the army of the hermit. A new host in the mean time arrived at Constantinople, led by more illustrious commanders; by Godfrey of Bouillon duke of Brabant, Raymond count of Thoulouse, Robert of Normandy, son of William king of England, Bohemond, son of Robert Guiscard, the conqueror of Sicily, and other princes of high reputation. To these, who amounted to some hundred thousands, Alexius manifested the same prudent conduct, to accelerate their departure. The Turks, overpowered by numbers, were twice defeated; and the crusaders, pursuing their successes, penetrated at length to Jerusalem, which after a siege of six weeks, they took by storm, and with savage fury massacred the whole of its Mahometan and Jewish inhabitants, A. D. 1,099. Godfrey was hailed king of Jerusalem, but was obliged soon after to cede his kingdom to the pope's legate. The crusaders divided Syria and Palestine, and formed four separate states, which weakened their power. The Turks began to recover strength; and the christians of Asia soon found it necessary to solicit aid from Europe.

3. The second crusade set out from the west in 1,146, to the amount of 200,000 French, Germans, and Italians, led by Hugh, brother of Philip I. of France. These met with the same fate which attended the army of Peter the hermit. The garrison of Jerusalem was at this time so weak, that it became necessary to embody and arm the monks for its defence; and hence arose the military orders of the knights templars and hospitallers, and soon after the Teutonic, from the German pilgrims. Meantime pope Eugenius III. employed St. Bernard to preach a new crusade in France, which was headed by its sovereign Lewis VII., (the young), who, in conjunction with Conrad III., emperor of Germany, mustered jointly 500,000 men. The Germans were extirpated by the sultan of Iconium; the French were totally defeated near Laodicea; and the two monarchs, after much disaster, returned with shame to their dominions.

4. The illustrious Saladin, nephew of the sultan of Egypt, formed the design of recovering Palestine from the christians; and besieging Jerusalem, he took the city, and made prisoner its sovereign, Guy of Lusignan. Pope Clement III., alarmed at the successes of the infidels, began to stir up a new crusade from France, England, and Germany; and the armies of each country were headed by their respective sovereigns, Philip Augustus, Richard I., and Frederick Barbarossa. In this third crusade the emperor Frederick died in Asia, and his army, by repeated defeats, mouldered to nothing. The English and French were more successful: they besieged and took Ptolemais; but Richard and Philip quarrelled from jealousy of each other's glory, and the French monarch returned in disgust to his country. Richard nobly sustained the contest with Saladin, whom he defeated near Ascalon; but his army was reduced by famine and fatigue. He concluded a treaty, at least not dishonourable, with his enemy, and was forced at length to escape from Palestine with a single ship. (See Sect. XV., § 8.) Saladin, revered even by the christians, died in 1,195.

5. A fourth crusade was fitted out in 1,202, under Baldwin count of Flanders, of which the object was not the extirpation of the infidels, but the destruction of the empire of the east. Constantinople, embroiled by civil war and revolution from disputed claims to the

sovereignty, was besieged and taken by the crusaders; and Baldwin, their chief, was elected emperor, to be within a few months dethroned and murdered. The imperial dominions were shared among the principal leaders; and the Venetians, who had lent their ships for the expedition, got the isle of Candia (anciently Crete) for their reward. Alexius, of the imperial family of the Commeni, founded a new sovereignty in Asia, which he termed the empire of Trebizond. The object of a fifth crusade was to lay waste Egypt, in revenge for an attack on Palestine, by its sultan Saphadin. Partial success and ultimate ruin was the issue of this expedition, as of all the preceding.

6. At this period, 1,227, a great revolution took place in Asia. Gengiskan with his Tartars broke down from the north upon Persia and Syria, and massacred indiscriminately Turks, Jews, and Christians, who opposed them. The christian knights, templars, hospitallers, and Teutonic, made a desperate but ineffectual resistance; and Palestine must have been abandoned to these invaders, if its fate had not been for a while retarded by the last crusade under Lewis IX. of France. This prince, summoned by Heaven, as he believed, after four years' preparation, set out for the Holy Land, with his queen, his three brothers, and all the knights of France. His army began their enterprise by an attack on Egypt, where, after some considerable successes, they were at length utterly defeated; and the French monarch, with two of his brothers, fell into the hands of the enemy. He purchased his liberty at an immense ransom, and, returning to France, reigned prosperously and wisely for thirteen years. But the same phrensy again assailing him, he embarked on a crusade against the Moors in Africa, where he and his army were destroyed by a pestilence, 1,270. It is computed that, in the whole of the crusades to Palestine, two millions of Europeans were buried in the east.

7. *Effects of the crusades.* One consequence of the holy wars is supposed to have been the improvement of European manners; but the times immediately succeeding the crusades exhibit no such actual improvement. Two centuries of barbarism and darkness elapsed between the termination of those enterprises and the fall of the Greek empire in 1,453, the æra of the revival of letters, and the commencement of civilization. A certain consequence of the crusades was the change of territorial property in all the feudal kingdoms, the sale of the estates of the nobles, and their division among a number of smaller proprietors. Hence the feudal aristocracy was weakened, and the lower classes began to acquire weight, and a spirit of independence. The towns hitherto bound by a sort of vassalage to the nobles, began to purchase their immunity, acquired the right of electing their own magistrates, and were governed by their own municipal laws. The church in some respects gained, and in others lost by those enterprises. The popes gained a more extended jurisdiction; but the fatal issue of those expeditions opened the eyes of the world to the selfish and interested motives which had prompted them, and weakened the sway of superstition. Many of the religious orders acquired an increase of wealth; but this was balanced by the taxes imposed on the clergy. The coin was altered and debased in most of the kingdoms of Europe, from the scarcity of specie. The Jews were supposed to have hoarded and concealed it, and hence they became the victims of general persecution. The most substantial gainers by the crusades were the italian states of Genoa, Pisa, and Venice, from the increased trade to the Levant

for the supply of those immense armies. Venice, as we have seen, took an active concern, and obtained her share of the conquered territory.

The age of the crusades brought chivalry to its perfection and gave rise to romantic fiction.

See Kett's Elements of General Knowledge, vol. I.

SECTION XVIII.

OF CHIVALRY AND ROMANCE.

1. Chivalry arose naturally from the condition of society in those ages in which it prevailed. Among the Germanic nations the profession of arms was esteemed the sole employment that deserved the name of manly or honourable. The initiation of the youth to this profession was attended with peculiar solemnity and appropriate ceremonies. The chief of the tribe bestowed the sword and armour on his vassal, as a symbol of their devotion to his service. In the progress of the feudal system these vassals, in imitation of their chief, assumed the power of conferring arms on their sub-vassals, with a similar form of mysterious and pompous ceremonial. The candidate for knighthood underwent his preparatory fasts and vigils, and received on his knees the *accollade* and benediction of his chief. Armed and caparisoned, he sallied forth in quest of adventure, which, whether just or not in its purpose, was ever esteemed honourable in proportion as it was perilous.

2. The esteem of the female sex is characteristic of the Gothic manners. In those ages of barbarism the castles of the greater barons were the courts of sovereigns in miniature. The society of the ladies, who found only in such fortresses a security from outrage, polished the manners; and to protect the chastity and honour of the fair, was the best employ and the highest merit of an accomplished knight. Romantic exploit therefore had always a tincture of gallantry.

> It hath been through all ages ever seen,
> That with the praise of arms and chivalry
> The prize of beauty still hath joined been,
> And that for reasons special privity:
> For either doth on other much rely;
> For he, me seems, most fit the fair to serve,
> That can her best defend from villany;
> And she most fit his service doth deserve
> That fairest is, and from her faith will never swerve.
>
> Spenser's Fairy Queen.

3. To the passion for adventure and romantic love was added a high regard for morality and religion; but as the latter were ever subordinate to the former, we may presume more in favour of the refinement than of the purity of the knights. It was the pride of a knight to redress wrongs and injuries; but in that honourable employment he made small account of those which he committed. It was easy to expiate the greatest offences by a penance or a pilgrimage, which furnished only a new opportunity for adventurous exploit.

4. Chivalry, whether it began with the Moors or Normans, attained its perfection at the period of the crusades, which presented a no-

ble object of adventure, and a boundless field for military glory. Few indeed returned from those desperate enterprises; but those had a high reward in the admiration of their countrymen. The bards and romancers sung their praises, and recorded their exploits, with a thousand circumstances of fabulous embellishment.

5. The earliest of the old romances (so termed from the Romance language, a mixture of the Frank and Latin, in which they were written) appeared about the middle of the twelfth century, the period of the second crusade. But those more ancient compositions did not record contemporary events, whose known truth would have precluded all liberty of fiction or exaggeration. Geoffrey of Monmouth, and the author who assumed the name of archbishop Turpin, had free scope to their fancy, by celebrating the deeds of Arthur and the knights of the round table, and the exploits of Charlemagne and his twelve peers. From the fruitful stock of those first romances sprung a numerous offspring equally wild and extravagant.

6. Philosophers have analyzed the pleasure arising from works of fiction, and have endeavoured, by various hypotheses, to account for the interest which we take in the description of an event or scene which is known to be utterly impossible. The fact may be simply explained as follows. Every narration is in some degree attended with a dramatic deception. We enter for the time into the situation of the persons concerned; and, adopting their passions and feelings, we lose all sense of the absurdity of their cause, while we see the agents themselves hold it for reasonable and adequate. The most incredulous sceptic may sympathize strongly with the feelings of Hamlet at the sight of his father's spectre.

7. Thus powerfully affected as we are by sympathy, even against the conviction of our reason, how much greater must have been the effect of such works of the imagination in those days, when popular superstition gave full credit to the reality, or at least the possibility, of all that they described! And hence we must censure, as both unnecessary and improbable, the theory of Dr. Hurd, which accounts for all the wildness of the old romances, on the supposition that their fictions were entirely allegorical; which explains the giants and savages into the oppressive feudal lords and their barbarous dependents; as M. Mallet construes the serpents and dragons which guarded the enchanted castles, into their winding walls, fosses, and battlements. It were sufficient to say, that many of those old romances are inexplicable by allegory. They were received by the popular belief as truths; and even their contrivers believed in the possibility of the scenes and actions which they described. In latter ages, and in the wane of superstition, yet while it still retained a powerful influence, the poets adopted allegory as a vehicle of moral instruction: and to this period belong those political romances which bear an allegorical explanation; as the *Fairy Queen* of Spenser, the *Orlando* of Ariosto, and the *Gierusalemme Liberata* of Tasso.

8. In more modern times the taste for romantic composition declined with popular credulity; and the fastidiousness of philosophy affected to treat all supernatural fiction with contempt. But it was at length perceived that this refinement had cut off a source of very high mental enjoyment. The public taste now took a new turn; and this moral revolution is at present tending to its extreme. We are gone back to the nursery to listen to tales of hobgoblins; a change which we may safely prognosticate can be of no duration.

SECTION XIX.

STATE OF EUROPE IN THE THIRTEENTH AND FOURTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. Constantinople, taken in 1,202 by the crusaders, was possessed only for a short time by its conquerors. It was governed by French emperors for the space of sixty years, and was retaken by the Greeks in 1,261, under Michael Pakæologus, who, by imprisoning and putting out the eyes of his pupil Theodore Lascaris, secured to himself the sovereignty.

2. In the beginning of the thirteenth century Germany was governed by Frederick II., who paid homage to the pope for the kingdom of Naples and Sicily, which was possessed by his son Conrad, and afterwards by his brother Manfred, who usurped the crown in violation of the right of his nephew Conradin. Pope Clement IV., jealous of the dominion of the imperial family, gave the investiture of Naples and Sicily to Charles of Anjou, brother of Lewis IX. of France, who defeated and put to death his competitors. The Sicilians revenged this act of usurpation and cruelty by the murder, in one night, of every Frenchman in the island. This shocking massacre, termed the *Sicilian vespers*, happened on Easter Sunday, 1,282. It was followed by every evil that comes in the train of civil war and revolution.

3. The beginning of the thirteenth century had been signalized by a new species of crusade. The Albigenses, inhabitants of Alby in the Pays de Vaud, were bold enough to dispute many of the tenets of the catholic church, judging them contrary to the doctrines of scripture. Innocent III. established a holy commission at Thoulouse, with power to try and punish those heretics. The count of Thoulouse opposed this persecution, and was, for the punishment of his offence, compelled by the pope to assist in a crusade against his own vassals. Simon de Montfort was the leader of this pious enterprise, which was marked by the most atrocious cruelties. The benefits of the holy commission were judged by the popes to be so great, that it became from that time a permanent establishment, known by the name of *the inquisition*.

4. The rise of the house of Austria may be dated from 1,274, when Rodolphus of Hapsbourg, a Swiss baron, was elected emperor of Germany. He owed his elevation to the jealousies of the electoral princes, who could not agree in the choice of any one of themselves. The king of Bohemia, to whom Rodolphus had been steward of the household, could ill brook the supremacy of his former dependent; and refusing him the customary homage for his Germanic possessions, Rodolphus stripped him of Austria, which has ever since remained in the family of its conqueror.

5. The Italian states of Venice, Genoa, and Pisa, were at this time flourishing and opulent, while most of the kingdoms of Europe (if we except England under Edward I.,) were exhausted, feeble, and disorderly. A dawning of civil liberty began to appear in France under Philip IV. (*le bel*), who summoned the third estate to the national assemblies, which had hitherto consisted of the nobility and clergy, 1,303. Philip established perpetual courts of judicature in France, under the name of parliaments. Over these the parliament

of Paris possessed a jurisdiction by appeal; but it was not till later times that it assumed any authority in matters of State.

6. The parliament of England had before this era begun to assume its present constitution. The commons, or the representatives of counties and boroughs, were first called to parliament by Henry III. Before that time this assembly consisted only of the greater barons and clergy. But of the rise and progress of the constitution of England we shall afterwards treat more paticularly in a separate section.

7. The spirit of the popedom, zealous in the maintenance and extension of its prerogatives, continued much the same in the thirteenth and fourteenth, as we have seen it in the three preceding centuries. Philip the fair had subjected his clergy to bear their share of the public taxes, and prohibited all contributions to be levied by the pope in his dominions. This double offence was highly resented by Boniface VIII., who expressed his indignation by a sentence of excommunication and interdict, and a solemn transference of the kingdom of France to the emperor Albert. Philip, in revenge, sent his general Nogaret to Rome, who threw the pope into prison. The French, however, were overpowered by the papal troops; and the death of Boniface put an end to the quarrel.

8. It is less easy to justify the conduct of Philip the fair to the knights templars than his behaviour to pope Boniface. The whole of this order had incurred his resentment, from suspicion of harbouring treasonable designs. He had influence with Clement V. to procure a papal bull warranting their extirpation from all the christian kingdoms: and this infamous proscription was carried into effect over all Europe. Those unfortunate men were solemnly tried, not for their real offence, but for pretended impieties and idolatrous practices, and committed to the flames 1,309—1,312.

SECTION XX.

REVOLUTION OF SWITZERLAND.

1. The beginning of the fourteenth century was distinguished by the revolution of Switzerland, and the rise of the Helvetic republic. The emperor Rodolphus of Hapsbourg was hereditary sovereign of several of the Swiss cantons, and governed his states with much equity and moderation. His successor Albert, a tyrannical prince, formed the design of annexing the whole of the provinces to his dominion, and of erecting them into a principality for one of his sons. The cantons of Schweitz, Ury, and Underwald, which had always resisted the authority of Austria, combined to assert their freedom; and a small army of 400 or 500 men defeated an immense host of the Austrians in the pass of Morgate, 1,315. The rest of the cantons by degrees joined the association. With invincible perseverance the united cantons won and secured their dear-bought liberty, after sixty pitched battles with their enemies.

2. *Constitution of Switzerland.* The thirteen cantons were united by a solemn treaty, which stipulated the proportional succours to be furnished by each in the case of foreign hostility, and the measures to be followed for securing the union of the states, and accommodating domestic differences. With respect to its internal government and economy, each canton was independent. Of some the constitution

was monarchical, and of others republican. All matters touching the general league were transacted either by letters sent to Zurich, and thence officially circulated to all the cantons, or by conferences. The general diet, where two deputies attended from each canton, was held once a year, the first deputy of Zurich presiding. The catholic and protestant cantons likewise held their separate diets on occasional emergencies.

3. The Swiss, when at peace, employed their troops for hire in foreign service, judging it a wise policy to keep alive the military spirit of the nation; and the armies thus employed have been equally distinguished for their courage and fidelity. The industry and economy of the Swiss are proverbial; and their country supports an abundant population, from the zealous promotion of agriculture and manufactures.

SECTION XXI.

STATE OF EUROPE IN THE THIRTEENTH, FOURTEENTH, AND PART OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. The rival claims of superiority between the popes and emperors still continued. Henry VII., the successor of Albert, vindicated his right by the sword, triumphantly fought his way to Rome, where he was solemnly crowned, and imposed a tribute on all the states of Italy. His sudden death was suspected to be the consequence of papal resentment. In his time the seat of the popedom was transferred by Clement V. from Rome to Avignon, 1,309, where it remained till 1,377. The factions of Italy were the cause of this removal. Lewis of Bavaria, the successor of Henry, deposed and excommunicated by John XXII., revenged himself by deposing the pope. This pontiff, who had originally been a cobbler, surpassed most of his predecessors in pride and tyranny. He kept his seat on the papal chair, and left at his death an immense treasure accumulated by the sale of benefices; while his rival the emperor died in indigence.

2. His successor in the empire, Charles IV., published, in 1,355, the imperial constitution, termed *the golden bull*, the fundamental law of the Germanic body, which reduced the number of electors to seven, and settled on them all the hereditary offices of state. The electors exemplified their new rights by deposing his son Wenceslaus for incapacity, 1,400. Three separate factions of the French and Italian cardinals having elected three separate popes, the emperor Sigismund judged this division of the church to be a fit opportunity for his interference to reconcile all differences, and establish his own supremacy. He summoned a general council at Constance in 1,414, and ended the dispute by degrading all the three pontiffs, and naming a fourth, Martin Colonna. This division of the papacy is termed the *great schism of the west*.

3. The spiritual business of the council of Constance was no less important than its temporal. John Huss, a disciple of Wickliff, was tried for heresy, in denying the hierarchy, and satirizing the immoralities of the popes and bishops. He did not deny the charge, and, refusing to confess his errors, was burnt alive. A similar fate was the portion of his friend and disciple, Jerom of Prague, who

displayed at his execution the eloquence of an apostle, and the constancy of a martyr, 1,416. Sigismund felt the consequence of these horrible proceedings; for the Bohemians opposed his succession to their vacant crown, and it cost him a war of sixteen years to attain it.

4. Whatever was the imperial power at this time, it derived but small consequence from its actual revenues. The wealth of the Germanic states was exclusively possessed by their separate sovereigns, and the emperor had little more than what he drew from Bohemia and Hungary. The sovereignty of Italy was an empty title. The interest of the emperor in that country furnished only a source of faction to its princes, and embroiled the states in perpetual quarrels. A series of conspiracies and civil tumults form the annals of the principal cities for above 200 years. Naples and Sicily were ruined by the weak and disorderly government of the two Joannas. A passion which the younger of these conceived for a soldier of the name of Sforza raised him to the sovereignty of Milan; and her adoption, first of Alphonzo of Arragon, and afterwards of Lewis of Anjou, laid the foundation of those contests between Spain and France for the sovereignty of the two Sicilies, which afterwards agitated all Europe.

SECTION XXII.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

1. On the death of John, his son Henry III. succeeded to the crown of England at nine years of age. He was a prince of amiable dispositions, but of weak understanding. His preference of foreign favourites disgusted his nobles; and the want of economy in his government, and oppressive exactions, deprived him of the affection of his people. Montfort earl of Leicester, son of the leader of the crusade against the Albigenses, and brother-in-law of the king, conceived a plan for usurping the government. He formed a league with the barons, on the pretext of reforming abuses, and compelled Henry to delegate all the regal power into the hands of twenty-four of their number. These divided among themselves the offices of government, and new-modelled the parliament, by summoning a certain number of knights chosen from each county. This measure was fatal to their own power; for these knights or representatives of the people, indignant at Leicester's usurpation, determined to restore the royal authority; and called on prince Edward, a youth of intrepid spirit, to avenge his father's wrongs and save the kingdom.

2. Leicester raised a formidable force, and defeated the royal army at Lewes, in Sussex, 1,264, and made both the king and prince Edward his prisoners. He now compelled the impotent Henry to ratify his authority by a solemn treaty. He assumed the character of regent, and called a parliament, summoning two knights from each of the counties, and deputies from the principal boroughs, the first regular plan of the English house of commons. This assembly exercising its just rights, and asserting with firmness the re-establishment of the ancient government of the kingdom, Leicester judged it prudent to release the prince from his confinement. Edward was no sooner at liberty than he took the field against the usurper, who was defeated and slain in the battle of Evesham, on the 4th day of

August, 1,265. Henry was now restored to his throne by the arms of his gallant son, who, after establishing domestic tranquillity, embarked in the last crusade with Lewis IX., and signalized his prowess by many valorous exploits in Palestine. He had the honour of concluding an advantageous truce for ten years with the sultan of Babylon, and was on his return to England when he received intelligence of his accession to the crown by the death of his father, 1,272.

3. Edward I. projected the conquest of Wales in the beginning of his reign. The Welsh, the descendants of the ancient Britons who had escaped the Roman and Saxon conquests, preserved their liberty, laws, manners, and language. Their prince, Lewellyn, refused his customary homage to the king of England. Edward invaded Wales, and, surrounding the army of the prince, who retreated to the mountains, cut off all his supplies, and compelled him to an unqualified submission. The terms demanded were, the surrender of a part of the country, a large sum of money, and an obligation of perpetual fealty to the crown of England. The Welsh infringed this treaty, and Edward marched his army into the heart of the country, where the troops of Lewellyn made a most desperate but ineffectual resistance. In a decisive engagement, in 1,283, the prince was slain. His brother David, betrayed into the hands of the conqueror, was inhumanly executed on a gibbet; and Wales, completely subdued, was annexed to the crown of England. With a policy equally absurd and cruel, Edward ordered the Welsh bards to be put to death wherever found; thereby ensuring the perpetuation of their heroic songs, and increasing the abhorrence of the vanquished people for their barbarous conqueror.

4. The conquest of Wales inflamed the ambition of Edward, and inspired him with the design of extending his dominion to the extremity of the island. The designs of this enterprising monarch on the kingdom of Scotland invite our attention to that quarter.

SECTION XXIII.

HISTORY OF SCOTLAND FROM THE ELEVENTH TO THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

1. The history of Scotland before the reign of Malcolm III., surnamed Canmore, is obscure and fabulous. This prince succeeded to the throne in 1,057 by the defeat of Macbeth, the murderer of his father Duncan. Espousing the cause of Edgar Atheling, heir of the Saxon kings of England, whose sister he married, he thus provoked a war with William the conqueror, which was equally prejudicial to both kingdoms. In an expedition of Malcolm into England it is alleged, that, after concluding a truce, he was compelled by William to do homage for his kingdom. The truth is, that this homage was done for the territories in Cumberland and Northumberland won by the Scots, and held in vassalage of the English crown; though this homage was afterwards absurdly made the pretext of a claim of feudal sovereignty over all Scotland. In a reign of twenty-seven years Malcolm supported a spirited contest with England, both under William I. and his son Rufus: and to the virtues of his queen Margaret, his kingdom, in its domestic policy, owed a degree of civilization remarkable in those ages of barbarism.

2. Alexander I., his son and successor, defended, with equal spirit and good policy, the independence of his kingdom; and his son David I., celebrated even by the democratic Buchanan as an honour to his country and to monarchy, won from Stephen, and annexed to his crown, the whole earldom of Northumberland. In those reigns we hear of no claim of the feudal subjection of Scotland to the crown of England; though the accidental fortune of war afterwards furnished a ground for it. William I., (the lion), taken prisoner at Alnwick by Henry II., was compelled, as the price of his release, to do homage for his whole kingdom; an obligation which his successor Richard voluntarily discharged, deeming it to have been unjustly extorted.

3. On the death of Alexander III. without male issue, in 1,285, Bruce and Baliol, descendants of David I. by the female line, were competitors for the crown, and the pretensions of each were supported by a formidable party in the kingdom. Edward I. of England, chosen umpire of the contest, arrogated to himself, in that character, the feudal sovereignty of the kingdom, compelling all the barons to swear allegiance to him, and taking actual possession of the country by his troops. He then adjudged the crown to Baliol, on the express condition of his swearing fealty to him as lord paramount. Baliol, however, soon after renouncing his allegiance, the indignant Edward invaded Scotland with an immense force, and compelled the weak prince to abdicate the throne, and resign the kingdom into his hands.

4. William Wallace, one of the greatest heroes whom history records, restored the fallen honours of his country. Joined by a few patriots, his first successes in attacking the English garrisons brought numbers to his patriotic standard. Their successes were signal and conspicuous. Victory followed upon victory. While Edward was engaged on the continent, his troops were utterly defeated in a desperate engagement at Stirling, and forced to evacuate the kingdom. Wallace, the deliverer of his country, now assumed the title of governor of Scotland under Baliol, who was Edward's prisoner; a distinction which was followed by the envy and disaffection of many of the nobles, and the consequent diminution of his army. The Scots were defeated at Falkirk. Edward returned with a vast accession of force. After a fruitless resistance the Scottish barons finally obtained peace by a capitulation, from which the brave Wallace was excepted by name. A fugitive for some time, he was betrayed into the hands of Edward, who put him to death, with every circumstance of cruelty that barbarous revenge could dictate, 1,304.

5. Scotland found a second champion and deliverer in Robert Bruce, the grandson of the competitor with Baliol; who, deeply resenting the humiliation of his country, once more set up the standard of war, and gave defiance to the English monarch, to whom his father and grandfather had meanly sworn allegiance. Under this intrepid leader the spirit of the nation was roused at once. The English were attacked in every quarter, and once more entirely driven out of the kingdom. Robert Bruce was crowned king at Scone, 1,306. Edward was advancing with an immense army, and died at Carlisle on the 7th day of July, 1,307. He enjoined it with his last breath to his son, Edward II., to prosecute the war with the Scots to the entire reduction of the country.

SECTION XXIV.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND IN THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY.

1. In the reign of Edward I. we observe the constitution of England gradually advancing. The commons had been admitted to parliament in the latter period of his father Henry III. A statute was passed by Edward, which declared, that no tax or impost should be levied without the consent of lords and commons. Edward ratified the *Magna Charta* no less than eleven times in the course of his reign; and henceforward this fundamental law began to be regarded as sacred and unalterable.

2. Edward II. was in character the very opposite of his father: weak, indolent, and capricious; but of humane and benevolent affections. He disgusted his nobles by his attachment to mean and undeserving favourites, whom he raised to the highest dignities of the state, and honoured with his exclusive confidence. Piers Gaveston, a vicious and trifling minion, whom the king appointed regent when on a journey to Paris to marry Isabella, daughter of Philip the fair, disgusted the barons to such a pitch, that they compelled the king to delegate all the authority of government to certain commissioners, and to abandon his favourite to their resentment. He was doomed to perpetual imprisonment, and, on attempt to escape, was seized and beheaded.

3. Edward, in obedience to his father's will, invaded Scotland with an army of 100,000 men. King Robert Bruce met this immense force with 30,000 men at Bannockburn, and defeated them with prodigious slaughter. This important victory secured the independence of Scotland. Edward escaped by sea to his own dominions. A new favourite, Spenser, supplied the place of Gaveston; but his undeserved elevation and overbearing character completed the disaffection of the nobles to their sovereign. The queen, a vicious adulteress, joined the malcontents, and, passing over to France, obtained from her brother Charles IV. an army to invade England, and dethrone her husband. Her enterprise was successful. Spenser and his father were betrayed into the hands of their enemies, and perished on a scaffold. The king was taken prisoner, tried by parliament, and solemnly deposed; and being confined to prison, was soon after put to death in a manner shocking to humanity, 1327.

4. Edward III., crowned at fourteen years of age, could not submit to the regency of a mother stained with the foulest of crimes. His father's death was revenged by the perpetual imprisonment of Isabella, and the public execution of her paramour Mortimer. Bent on the conquest of Scotland, Edward marched to the north with a prodigious army, vanquished the Scots in the battle of Halidoun-hill, and placed on the throne Edward Baliol, his vassal and tributary. But the kingdom was as repugnant as ever to the rule of England, and a favourable opportunity was taken for the renewal of hostilities, on the departure of Edward for a foreign enterprise, which gave full scope to his ambition.

5. On the death of Charles IV. without male issue, the crown of France was claimed by Edward III. of England, in right of his mother, the sister of Charles, while, in the mean time, the throne was occupied by the male heir, Philip of Valois. Edward fitted out an im-

mense armament by sea and land, and, obtaining a signal victory over the French fleet, landed on the coast of Normandy, and with his son, the black prince, ran a career of the most glorious exploits. Philip, with 100,000 men, met the English with 30,000, and was entirely defeated in the field of Cressy, August 26, 1,348. Calais was taken by the English, and remained in their possession 210 years. The English are said to have first used artillery in the battle of Cressy. Fire arms were then but a recent invention (1,340), and have much contributed to lessen both the slaughter and the frequency of wars. Mr. Hume well observes that war is now reduced nearly to a matter of calculation. A nation knows its power, and, when overmatched, either yields to its enemies, or secures itself by alliance.

6. The Scots in the mean time invaded England, and were defeated in the battle of Durham by Philippa, the heroic queen of Edward III.; and their sovereign David II. was led prisoner to London. A truce concluded between Edward and Philip was dissolved by the death of the latter. Philip was succeeded by his son John, who took the field with 60,000 men against the black prince, and was defeated by him with a far inferior number in the signal battle of Poictiers, September 19, 1,356. John king of France was led in triumph to London, the fellow-prisoner of David king of Scotland. But England derived from those victories nothing but honour. The French continued the war with great vigour during the captivity of their sovereign, who died in London in 1,364. They obtained a peace by the cession to the English of Poitou, St. Onge, Perigord and other provinces; and Edward consented to renounce his claim to the crown of France. The death of the black prince, a most heroic and virtuous man, plunged the nation in grief, and broke the spirits of his father, who did not long survive him.

7. Richard II. succeeded his grandfather, in 1,377, at the age of eleven. Charles VI. soon after became king of France at the age of twelve. Both kingdoms suffered from the distractions attending a regal minority. In England the contests for power between the king's uncles, Lancaster, York, and Gloucester, embroiled all public measures; and the consequent disorders required a stronger hand to compose them than that of the weak and facile Richard. Taking advantage of the king's absence, then engaged in quelling an insurrection in Ireland, Henry of Lancaster rose in open rebellion, and compelled Richard, at his return, to resign the crown. The parliament confirmed his deposition, and he was soon after privately assassinated. Thus began the contentions between the houses of York and Lancaster.

SECTION XXV.

ENGLAND AND FRANCE IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY. STATE OF MANNERS.

1. Henry IV. ascended the throne on the deposition of Richard II., 1,399; and had immediately to combat a rebellion raised by the earl of Northumberland, for placing Mortimer, the heir of the house of York, on the throne. The Scots and Welsh took part with the rebels, but their united forces were defeated at Shrewsbury, and their leader, young Percy (Hotspur), killed on the field. A second rebellion

headed by the archbishop of York, was quelled by the capital punishment of its author. The secular arm was rigorously extended against the followers of Wickliff, and this reign saw the first detestable examples of religious persecution. The life of Henry was imbittered by the youthful disorders of his son the prince of Wales, who afterwards nobly redeemed his character. Henry IV. died in 1,413, at the age of forty-six.

2. Henry V. took advantage of the disorders of France, from the temporary insanity of its sovereign Charles VI., and the factious struggles for power between the dukes of Burgundy and Orleans, to invade the kingdom with a large army, which a contagious distemper wasted down to a fifth of its numbers; yet with this handful of resolute and hardy troops, he defeated the French army of 60,000, under the constable D'Albert, in the famous battle of Agincourt, in which 10,000 of the enemy were slain, and 14,000 made prisoners, October 24, 1,415. Returning to England to recruit his forces, he landed again with an army of 25,000, and fought his way to Paris. The insane monarch, with his court, fled to Troye, and Henry pursuing, terminated the war by a treaty with the queen-mother of the duke of Burgundy, by which it was agreed that he should marry the daughter of Charles VI., and receive the kingdom of France as her dowry, which, till the death of her father, he should govern as regent.

3. Mean time the return of Henry to England gave the dauphin hopes of the recovery of his kingdom. He was victorious in an engagement with the English under the duke of Clarence; but his success was of no longer duration than the absence of the English sovereign, who was himself hastening to the period of his triumphs. Seized with a mortal distemper, Henry died in the 34th year of his age, 1,422, one of the most heroic princes that ever swayed the sceptre of England. His brother, the duke of Bedford, was declared regent of France, and Henry VI., an infant nine months old, was proclaimed king at Paris and at London, 1,422.

4. Charles VII. recovered France by slow degrees. With the aid of a young female enthusiast, the maid of Orleans, whom the credulity of the age supposed to be inspired by Heaven, he gained several important advantages over the English, which the latter inhumanly revenged, by burning this heroine as a sorceress. Her death was of equal advantage to the French as her life had been. The government of the English was universally detested. After a struggle of many years, they were at length, in 1,450, deprived of all that they had ever possessed in France, except Calais and Guignes. Charles, when he had restored his kingdom to peace, governed it with admirable wisdom and moderation.

5. The state of England and of France, the two most polished kingdoms in Europe, furnishes a good criterion of the condition of society in those ages of which we have been treating. Even in the large cities the houses were roofed with thatch, and had no chimnies. Glass windows were extremely rare, and the floors were covered with straw. In England wine was sold only in the shops of the apothecaries. Paper made from linen rags was first manufactured in the beginning of the fifteenth century; and the use of linen for shirts was at that time a very rare piece of luxury. Yet even before that age the progress of luxury had excited a serious alarm, for the parliament under Edward III. found it necessary to prohibit the use of gold and silver in apparel to all who had not

a hundred pounds a year; and Charles VI. of France ordained, that none should presume to entertain with more than two dishes and a mess of soup. Before the reign of Edward I. the whole country of England was plundered by robbers in great bands, who laid waste entire villages; and some of the household officers of Henry III. excused themselves for robbing on the highway, because the king allowed them no wages. In 1,303 the abbot and monks of Westminster were indicted for robbing the king's exchequer, but acquitted. The admirable laws of Edward I., which acquired him the title of the English Justinian, give strong testimony of the miserable policy and barbarism of the preceding times.

SECTION XXVI.

DECLINE AND FALL OF THE GREEK EMPIRE.

1. In the fourteenth century the Turks were proceeding by degrees to encroach on the frontiers of the Greek empire. The sultan Ottoman had fixed the seat of his government at Byrsa in Bithynia; and his son Orcan extended his sovereignty to the Propontis, and obtained in marriage the daughter of the emperor John Cantacuzenos. About the middle of the century the Turks crossed over into Europe, and took Adrianople. The emperor John Palæologus, after meanly soliciting aid from the pope, concluded a humiliating treaty with sultan Amurat, and gave his son as a hostage to serve in the Turkish army.

2. Bajazet, the successor of Amurat, compelled the emperor to destroy his fort of Galata, and to admit a Turkish judge into the city. He prepared now to besiege Constantinople in form, when he was forced to change his purpose, and defend himself against the victorious Tamerlane.

3. Timur-bek or Tamerlane, a prince of the Usbek Tartars, and descended from Gengiskan, after the conquest of Persia, a great part of India and Syria, was invited by the Asiatic princes, enemies of Bajazet, to protect them against the Ottoman power, which threatened to overwhelm them. Tamerlane, flattered by this request, imperiously summoned the Turk to renounce his conquests; but the message was answered with a proud defiance. The armies met near Angoria (Ancyra) in Phrygia, and Bajazet was totally defeated and made prisoner by Tamerlane, 1,402. The conqueror made Samarcand the capital of his empire, and there received the homage of all the princes of the east. Tamerlane was illiterate, but yet was solicitous for the cultivation of literature and science in his dominions. Samarcand became for a while the seat of learning, politeness, and the arts; but was destined to relapse, after a short period, into its ancient barbarism.

4. The Turks, after the death of Tamerlane, resumed their purpose of destroying the empire of the east. Amurat II., a prince of singular character, had, on the faith of a solemn treaty with the king of Poland, devoted his days to retirement and study. A violation of the treaty, by an attack from the Poles on his dominions, made him quit his solitude. He engaged and destroyed the Polish army, with their perfidious sovereign, and then calmly returned to his retreat, till a similar crisis of public expediency once more brought him into active life. He left his dominions to his son Mahomet II.,

surnamed the great, who resumed the project for the destruction of Constantinople; but its fall was a second time retarded by the necessity in which the Turks were unexpectedly placed, of defending their own dominions against a powerful invader.

5. Scanderbeg (John Castriot) prince of Albania, whose territories had been seized by Amurat II., was educated by the sultan as his own child, and when of age, intrusted with the command of an army, which he employed in wresting from Amurat his paternal kingdom, 1,443. By great talents and military skill he maintained his independent sovereignty against the whole force of the Turkish empire.

6. Mahomet II., son of the philosophic Amurat, a youth of twenty-one years of age, resumed the plan of extinguishing the empire of the Greeks, and making Constantinople the capital of the Ottoman power. Its indolent inhabitants made but a feeble preparation for defence, and the powers of Europe looked on with supine indifference. The Turks assailed the city both by land and sea; and, battering down its walls with their cannon, entered sword in hand, and massacred all who opposed them. The emperor Constantine was slain; the city surrendered; and thus was finally extinguished the eastern empire of the Romans, A. D. 1453, which, from the building of its capital by Constantine the great, had subsisted 1,123 years. The imperial edifices were preserved from destruction. The churches were converted into mosques; but the exercise of their religion was allowed to all the christians. From that time the Greek christians have regularly chosen their own patriarch, whom the sultan installs; though his authority continues to be disputed by the Latin patriarch, who is chosen by the pope. Mahomet the great liberally patronized the arts and sciences; and, to compensate for the migration of those learned Greeks, who, on the fall of the empire, spread themselves over the countries of Europe, invited both artists and men of letters to his capital from other kingdoms.

7. The taking of Constantinople was followed by the conquest of Greece and Epirus. Italy might probably have met a similar fate, but by means of their fleet the Venetians opposed the arms of Mahomet with considerable success, and even attacked him in Greece. The contending powers soon after put an end to hostilities by a treaty. Mahomet the great died at the age of fifty-one, 1,481.

SECTION XXVII.

GOVERNMENT AND POLICY OF THE TURKISH EMPIRE.

1. The government of Turkey is an absolute monarchy, the whole legislative and executive authority of the state centering in the sultan, whose power is subject to no constitutional control. It is, however, limited in some degree by religious opinion; the precepts of the Coran inculcating certain duties on the sovereign, which it would be held an impiety to transgress. It is yet more strongly limited by the fear of deposition and assassination. Under these restraints the prince can seldom venture on an extreme abuse of power.

2. The spirit of the people is fitted for a subjection bordering on slavery. Concubinage being agreeable to the law of Mahomet, the grand seignior, the viziers, are born of female slaves: and there is scarcely a subject of the empire of ingenuous blood by both parents.

It is a fundamental maxim of the Turkish policy, that all the officers of state should be such as the sultan can entirely command, and at any time destroy, without danger to himself.

3. The grand vizier is usually entrusted with the whole functions of government, and of course subjected to the sole responsibility for all public measures. Subordinate to him are six viziers of the bench, who are his counsel and assessors in cases of law, of which he is supreme judge. The power of the grand vizier is absolute over all the subjects of the empire; but he cannot put to death a beglerbeg or a bashaw without the imperial signature; nor punish a janizary, unless through the medium of his military commander. The begierbegs are the governors of several provinces, the bashaws of a single province. All dignities in the Turkish empire are personal, and dependent on the sovereign's pleasure.

4. The revenues of the grand seignior arise from taxes and customs laid on the subject, annual tributes paid by the Tartars, stated gifts from the governors of the provinces, and, above all, the confiscations of estates, from the viziers and bashaws downwards to the lowest subjects of the empire. The certain and fixed revenues of the sovereign are small in comparison of those which are arbitrary. His absolute power enables him to execute great projects at a small expense.

SECTION XXVIII.

FRANCE AND ITALY IN THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

1. Scarcely any vestige of the ancient feudal government now remained in France. The only subsisting fiefs were Burgundy and Brittany. Charles the bold, duke of Burgundy, who sought to increase his territories by the conquest of Switzerland and Lorraine, was defeated by the Swiss, and killed in battle. He left no son, and Lewis XI. of France took possession of Burgundy as a male fief, 1,447. The duke's daughter married Maximilian, son of the emperor Frederick III., who, by this marriage, acquired the sovereignty of the Netherlands.

2. The acquisition of Burgundy and of Provence, which was bequeathed to France by the count de la Marche, increased very greatly the power of the crown. Lewis XI., an odious compound of vice, cruelty, and superstition, and a tyrant to his people, was the author of many wise and excellent regulations of public policy. The barbarity of the public executions in his reign is beyond all belief; yet the wisdom of his laws, the encouragement which he gave to commerce, the restraints which he imposed on the oppressions of the nobility, and the attention which he bestowed in regulating the courts of justice, must ever be mentioned to his honour.

3. The count de la Marche, beside the bequest of Provence to Lewis XI., left him his empty title of sovereign of the Two Sicilies. Lewis was satisfied with the substantial gift; but his son Charles VIII. was dazzled with the shadow. In the beginning of his reign he projected the conquest of Naples, and embarked in the enterprise with the most improvident precipitancy.

4. The dismembered state of Italy was favourable to his views.

The popedom, during the transference of its seat to Avignon, had lost many of its territories. Mantua, Modena, and Ferrara, had their independent sovereigns. Piedmont belonged to the duke of Savoy; Genoa and Milan to the family of Sforza. Florence, under the Medici, had attained a very high pitch of splendour. Cosmo, the founder of that family, employed a vast fortune, acquired by commerce, in the improvement of his country, in acts of public munificence, and in the cultivation of the sciences and elegant arts. His high reputation obtained for himself and his posterity the chief authority in his native state. Peter de Medici, his great grandson, ruled in Florence at the period of the expedition of Charles VIII. into Italy.

5. The papacy was enjoyed at this time by Alexander VI., a monster of wickedness. The pope and the duke of Milan, who had invited Charles to this enterprise, immediately betrayed him, and joined the interest of the king of Naples. Charles, after besieging the pope in Rome, and forcing him to submission, devoutly kissed his feet. He now marched against Naples, while its timed prince Alphonso fled to Sicily, and his son to the isle of Ischia, after absolving his subjects from their allegiance. Charles entered Naples in triumph, and was hailed emperor and Augustus: but he lost his new kingdom in almost as short a time as he had gained it. A league was formed against France between the pope, the emperor Maximilian, Ferdinand of Arragon, Isabella of Castile, and the Venetians; and on the return of Charles to France, the troops which he had left to guard his conquest were entirely driven out of Italy.

6. It has been remarked that, from the decisive effect of this confederacy against Charles VIII., the sovereigns of Europe derived a useful lesson of policy, and first adopted the idea of preserving a balance of power, by that tacit league which is understood to be always subsisting, for the prevention of the inordinate aggrandizement of any particular state.

7. Charles VIII. died at the age of twenty-eight, 1,498; and, leaving no children, the duke of Orleans succeeded to the throne of France by the title of Lewis XII.

SECTION XXIX.

HISTORY OF SPAIN IN THE FOURTEENTH AND FIFTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. We go back a little to the middle of the fourteenth century, to trace the history of Spain. Peter of Castile, surnamed the cruel, for no other reason but that he employed severe means to support his just rights, had to contend against a bastard brother, Henry of Transtamarre, who, with the aid of a French banditti, called Malandrins, led by Bertrand du Guesclin, strove to dispossess him of his kingdom. Peter was aided by Edward the black prince, then sovereign of Guienne, who defeated Transtamarre, and took Bertrand prisoner; but, on the return of the prince to England, Peter was attacked by his former enemies, and entirely defeated. Unable to restrain his rage in the first view with Transtamarre, the latter put him to death with his own hand, 1,368; and thus this usurper secured for himself and his posterity the throne of Castile.

2. The weakness and debauchery of one of his descendants, Henry IV. of Castile, occasioned a revolution in the kingdom. The ma-

jority of the nation rose in rebellion; the assembly of the nobles solemnly deposed their king, and, on the alleged ground of his daughter Joanna being a bastard, compelled him to settle the crown on his sister Isabella. They next brought about a marriage between Isabella and Ferdinand of Arragon, which united the monarchies of Arragon and Castile. After a ruinous civil war the revolution was at length completed by the death of the deposed sovereign, 1,474, and the retirement of his daughter Joanna to a monastery, 1,479.

3. At the accession of Ferdinand and Isabella to the thrones of Arragon and Castile, Spain was in a state of great disorder, from the lawless depredations of the nobles and their vassals. It was the first object of the new sovereigns to repress these enormities, by subjecting the offenders to the utmost rigour of law, enforced by the sword. *The holy brotherhood* was instituted for the discovery and punishment of crimes; and the inquisition (Sect. XIX, § 3), under the pretext of extirpating heresy and impiety, afforded the most detestable examples of sanguinary persecution.

4. The Moorish kingdom of Granada, a most splendid monarchy, but at that time weakened by faction, and a prey to civil war, offered a tempting object to the ambition of Ferdinand and Isabella. Alboacen was at war with his nephew Aboabdeli, who wanted to dethrone him; and Ferdinand aided Aboabdeli, in the view of ruining both; for no sooner was the latter in possession of the crown by the death of Alboacen, than Ferdinand invaded his ally with the whole force of Arragon and Castile. Granada was besieged in 1,491, and, after a blockade of eight months, surrendered to the victor. Aboabdeli, by a mean capitulation, saved his life, and purchased a retreat for his countrymen to a mountainous part of the kingdom, where they were suffered to enjoy unmolested their laws and their religion. Thus ended the dominion of the Moors in Spain, which had subsisted for 800 years.

5. Ferdinand, from that period, took the title of king of Spain. In 1,492 he expelled all the Jews from his dominions, on the absurd ground, that they kept in their hands the commerce of the kingdom; and Spain thus lost above 150,000 of the most industrious of her inhabitants. The exiles spread themselves over the other kingdoms of Europe, and were often the victims of a persecution equally inhuman. It would appear that Spain has felt, even to the present times, the effects of this folly, in the slow progress of the arts, and that deplorable inactivity which is the characteristic of her people. Even the discovery of the new world, which happened at this very period, and which stimulated the spirit of enterprise and industry in all the neighbouring kingdoms, produced but a feeble impression on that nation, which might in a great degree have monopolized its benefits. Of that great discovery we shall afterwards treat in a separate section.

SECTION XXX.

FRANCE, SPAIN, AND ITALY, IN THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH AND BEGINNING OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

1. Lewis XII., eagerly bent on vindicating his right to Naples, courted the interest of pope Alexander VI., who promised his aid on condition that his natural son, Cæsar Borgia, should receive from Lewis the duchy of Valentinois, with the king of Navarre's sister in

marriage. Lewis crossed the Alps, and in the space of a few days was master of Milan and Genoa. Sforza duke of Milan became his prisoner for life. Afraid of the power of Ferdinand of Spain, Lewis joined with him in the conquest of Naples, and agreed to divide with him the conquered dominions, the pope making no scruple to sanction the partition. But the compromise was of no duration; for Alexander VI., and Ferdinand, judging it a better policy to share Italy between themselves, united their interest to deprive Lewis of his new territories. The Spaniards, under Gonsalvo de Cordova, defeated the French, under the duke de Nemours and the chevalier Bayard; and Lewis irrecoverably lost his share of the kingdom of Naples.

2. History relates with horror the crimes of pope Alexander V., and his son Cæsar Borgia; their murders, robberies, profanations, incests. They compassed their ends in attaining every object of their ambition, but with the universal abhorrence of mankind, and finally met with an ample retribution for their crimes. The pope died by poison, prepared, as was alleged, by himself for an enemy; and Borgia, stripped of all his possessions by pope Julius II., and sent prisoner to Spain by Gonsalvo de Cordova, perished in miserable obscurity.

3. Julius II., the successor of Alexander, projected the formidable league of Cambray, 1,508, with the emperor, the kings of France and Spain, the duke of Savoy, and king of Hungary, for the destruction of Venice, and the division of her territories among the confederates. They accomplished in part their design, and Venice was on the verge of annihilation, when the pope changed his politics. Having made the French subservient to his views of plundering the Venetians, he now formed a new league with the Venetians, Germans, and Spaniards, to expel the French from Italy, and appropriate all their conquests. The Swiss and the English co-operated in this design. The French made a brave resistance under their generals Bayard and Gaston de Foix, but were finally overpowered. Lewis was compelled to evacuate Italy; Ferdinand, with the aid of Henry VIII. of England, stripped him of Navarre, and forced him to purchase a peace. He died in 1,515. Though unfortunate in his military enterprises, from the superior abilities of his rivals pope Julius and Ferdinand, yet he was justly esteemed by his subjects for the wisdom and equity of his government.

SECTION XXXI.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND FROM THE MIDDLE OF THE FIFTEENTH TO THE BEGINNING OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY. CIVIL WARS OF YORK AND LANCASTER.

1. We have seen France recovered from the English in the early part of the reign of Henry VI., by the talents and prowess of Charles VIII. During the minority of Henry, who was a prince of no capacity, England was embroiled by the factious contention for power between his uncles, the duke of Gloucester and the cardinal of Winchester. The latter, to promote his own views of ambition, married Henry to Margaret of Anjou, daughter of Regner the titular king of Naples, a woman of great mental endowments and singular heroism

of character, but whose severity in the persecution of her enemies alienated a great part of the nobles from their allegiance, and increased the partisans of a rival claimant of the crown.

2. This was Richard duke of York, descended by his mother from Lionel, second son of Edward III., and elder brother to John of Gaunt, the progenitor of Henry VI. The white rose distinguished the faction of York, and the red rose that of Lancaster. The party of York gained much strength from the incapacity of Henry, who was subject to periodical madness; and Richard was appointed lieutenant and protector of the kingdom. The authority of Henry was now annihilated; but Margaret roused her husband, in an interval of sanity, to assert his right; and the nation was divided in arms between the rival parties. In the battle of St. Albans 5,000 of the Lancastrians were slain, and the king was taken prisoner by the duke of York, on the 22d day of May, 1,455. Yet the parliament, while it confirmed the authority of the protector, maintained its allegiance to the king.

3. The spirit of the queen reanimated the royal party; and the Lancastrians gained such advantage, that the duke of York fled to Ireland, while his cause was secretly maintained in England by Guy earl of Warwick. In the battle of Northampton the party of York again prevailed, and Henry once more was brought prisoner to London; while his dauntless queen still nobly exerted herself to retrieve his fortunes. York now claimed the crown in open parliament, but prevailed only to have his right of succession ascertained on Henry's death, to the exclusion of the royal issue.

4. In the next battle the duke of York was slain, and his party defeated; but his successor Edward, supported by Warwick, avenged this disaster by a signal victory near Touton, in Yorkshire, in which 40,000 of the Lancastrians were slain. York was proclaimed king by the title of Edward IV., while Margaret, with her dethroned husband and infant son, fled into Flanders.

5. Edward, who owed his crown to Warwick, was ungrateful to his benefactor; and the imprudence and injustice of his conduct forced that nobleman at length to take part with the faction of Lancaster. The consequence was, that, after some struggles, Edward was deposed, and Henry VI. once more restored to the throne by the hands of Warwick, now known by the epithet of *the king-maker*. But this change was of no duration. The party of York ultimately prevailed. The Lancastrians were defeated in the battle of Barnet, and the brave Warwick was slain in the engagement, 1,472.

6. The intrepid Margaret, whose spirit was superior to every change of fortune, prepared to strike a last blow for the crown of England in the battle of Tewksbury. The event was fatal to her hopes: victory declared for Edward. Margaret was sent prisoner to the tower of London; and the prince her son, a youth of high spirit, when brought into the presence of his conqueror, having nobly dared to justify his enterprise to the face of his rival, was barbarously murdered by the dukes of Gloucester and Clarence. Henry VI. was soon after privately put to death in the Tower. The heroic Margaret, ransomed by Lewis XI., died in France, 1,482.

7. Edward IV., thus secured on the throne by the death of all his competitors, abandoned himself without reserve to the indulgence of a vicious and tyrannical nature. He put to death, on the most frivolous pretence, his brother Clarence. Preparing to gratify his subjects by a war with France, he died suddenly in the forty-second year of

his age, poisoned, as was suspected, by his brother Richard duke of Gloucester, 1,483.

8. Edward left two sons, the elder, Edward V., a boy of thirteen years of age. Richard duke of Gloucester, named protector in the minority of his nephew, hired, by means of Buckingham, a mob of the dregs of the populace to declare their wish for his assumption of the crown. He yielded, with affected reluctance, to this voice of the nation, and was proclaimed king by the title of Richard III., 1,483. Edward V., after a reign of two months, with his brother the duke of York, were, by command of the usurper, smothered while asleep, and privately buried in the Tower.

9. These atrocious crimes found an avenger in Henry earl of Richmond, the surviving heir of the house of Lancaster, who, aided by Charles VIII. of France, landed in England, and revived the spirits of a party almost extinguished in the kingdom. He gave battle to Richard in the field of Bosworth, and entirely defeated the army of the usurper, who was slain while fighting with the most desperate courage, August 22, 1,485. The crown which he wore in the engagement was immediately placed on the head of the conqueror. This auspicious day put an end to the civil wars of York and Lancaster. Henry VII. united the rights of both families by his marriage with Elizabeth, daughter of Edward IV.

10. The reign of Henry VII. was of twenty-four years' duration; and under his wise and politic government the kingdom recovered all the wounds which it had sustained in those unhappy contests. Industry, good order, and perfect subordination, were the fruit of the excellent laws passed in this reign; though the temper of the sovereign was despotic, and his avarice, in the latter part of his reign, prompted to the most oppressive exactions.

11. The government of Henry was disturbed by two very singular enterprises; the attempt of Lambert Simnel, the son of a baker, to counterfeit the person of the earl of Warwick, son of the duke of Clarence; and the similar attempt of Perkin Warbeck, son of a Flemish Jew, to counterfeit the duke of York, who had been smothered in the Tower by Richard III. Both impostors found considerable support, but were finally defeated. Simnel, after being crowned king of England and Ireland at Dublin, ended his days in a menial office of Henry's household. Perkin supported his cause by force of arms for five years, and was aided by a great proportion of the English nobility. Overpowered at length he surrendered to Henry, who condemned him to perpetual imprisonment; but his ambitious spirit meditated a new insurrection, and he was put to death as a traitor. Henry VII. died in 1,509, in the fifty-third year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign.

SECTION XXXII.

HISTORY OF SCOTLAND FROM THE MIDDLE OF THE FOURTEENTH CENTURY TO THE END OF THE REIGN OF JAMES V.

1. In no country of Europe had the feudal aristocracy attained to a greater height than in Scotland. The power of the greater barons, while it rendered them independent, and often the rivals

of their sovereign, was a perpetual source of turbulence and disorder in the kingdom. It was therefore a constant policy of the Scottish kings to humble the nobles, and break their factious combinations. Robert I. attempted to retrench the vast territorial possessions of his barons, by requiring every landholder to produce the titles of his estate; but was resolutely answered, that the sword was their charter of possession.

2. On the death of Robert in 1,329, and during the minority of his son David, Edward Baliol, the son of John formerly king of Scotland, with the aid of Edward III. of England, and of many of the factious barons, invaded the kingdom, and was crowned at Scone, while the young David was conveyed for security to France. The mean dependence of Baliol on the English monarch deprived him of the affections of the people. Robert, the steward of Scotland, Randolph, and Douglas, supported the Brucian interest, and, assisted by the French, restored David to his throne. This prince was destined to sustain many reverses of fortune; for, in a subsequent invasion of the English territory by the Scots, he was taken prisoner in the battle of Durham, and conveyed to London. He remained eleven years in captivity, and witnessed a similar fate of a brother monarch, John king of France, taken prisoner by the black prince in the battle of Poictiers. David was ransomed by his subjects, and restored to his kingdom in 1,357; and ended a turbulent reign in 1,370-1. The crown passed at his demise to his nephew Robert, the high steward of Scotland, in virtue of a destination made by Robert I.

3. The reign of Robert II., which was of twenty years' duration, was spent in a series of hostilities between the Scots and English, productive of no material consequence to either kingdom. The weak and indolent disposition of his successor Robert III., who found himself unequal to the contest with his factious nobles, prompted him to resign the government to his brother, the duke of Albany. This ambitious man formed the design of usurping the throne by the murder of his nephews, the sons of Robert. The elder, Rothsay, a prince of high spirit, was imprisoned on pretence of treasonable designs, and starved to death. The younger, James, escaped a similar fate which was intended for him; but on his passage to France, whither he was sent for safety by his father, he was taken by an English ship of war, and brought prisoner to London. The weak Robert sunk under these misfortunes, and died, 1,405, after a reign of fifteen years.

4. James I., a prince of great natural endowments, profited by a captivity of eighteen years at the court of England, in adorning his mind with every valuable accomplishment. At his return to his kingdom, which in his absence had been weakly governed by the regent Albany, and suffered under all the disorders of anarchy, he bent his whole attention to the improvement and civilization of his people, by the enactment of many excellent laws, enforced with a resolute authority. The factions of the nobles, their dangerous combinations, and their domineering tyranny over their dependents, the great sources of the people's miseries, were firmly restrained, and most severely punished. But these wholesome innovations, while they procured to James the affections of the nation at large, excited the odium of the nobility, and gave birth to a conspiracy, headed by the earl of Athole, the king's uncle, which terminated in the murder of this excellent prince, in the 44th year of his age, A. D. 1,437.

5. His son James II. inherited a considerable portion of the talents of his father; and, in the like purpose of restraining the inordinate power of his nobles, pursued the same maxims of government, which an impetuous temper prompted him, in some instances, to carry to the most blameable excess. The earl of Douglas, trusting to a powerful vassalage, had assumed an authority above the laws, and a state and splendour rival to those of his sovereign. He was seized, and beheaded without accusation or trial. His successor imprudently running the same career, and boldly justifying, in a conference, his rebellious practices, was put to death by the king's own hand. Thus were the factions of the nobles quelled by a barbarous rigour of authority. To his people James was beneficent and humane, and his laws contributed materially to their civilization and prosperity. He was killed, in the 30th year of his age, by the bursting of a cannon, in besieging the castle of Roxburgh, A. D. 1,460.

6. His son James III., without the talents of his predecessors, affected to tread in the same steps. To humble his nobles he bestowed his confidence on mean favourites, an insult which the former avenged by rebellion. His brothers Albany and Mar, aided by Edward IV. of England, attempted a revolution in the kingdom, which was frustrated only by the death of Edward. In a second rebellion the confederate nobles forced the prince of Rothsay, eldest son of James, to appear in arms against his father. In an engagement near Bannockburn the rebels were successful, and the king was slain in the 35th near of his age, 1,488.

7. James IV., a great and most accomplished prince, whose talents were equalled by his virtues, while his measures of government were dictated by a true spirit of patriotism, won by a well-placed confidence the affections of his nobility. In his marriage with Margaret, the daughter of Henry VII. of England, both sovereigns wisely sought a bond of amity between the kingdoms; but this purpose was frustrated in the succeeding reign of Henry VIII. The high spirit of the rival monarchs was easily inflamed by trifling causes of offence; and France, then at war with England, courted the aid of her ancient ally. James invaded England with a powerful army, which he wished to lead to immediate action; but the prudent delays of Surrey, the English general, wasted and weakened his force. In the fatal battle of Flodden the Scots were defeated with prodigious slaughter. The gallant James perished in the fight, and with him almost the whole of the Scottish nobles, A. D. 1,513.

8. Under the long minority of his son James V., an infant at the time of his father's death, the kingdom was feebly ruled by his uncle Albany. The aristocracy began to resume its ancient spirit of independence, which was ill-brooked by a prince of a proud and uncontrolable mind, who felt the keenest jealousy of a high prerogative. With a systematic policy he employed the church to abuse the nobility, conferring all the offices of state on able ecclesiastics. The cardinal Beaton co-operated with great zeal in the designs of his master, and under him ruled the kingdom.

9. Henry VIII., embroiled with the papacy, sought an alliance with the king of Scots; but the ecclesiastical counsellors of the latter defeated this beneficial purpose. A war was thus provoked, and James was reluctantly compelled to court those nobles whom it had hitherto been his darling object to humiliate. They now determined on a disgraceful revenge. In an attack on the Scottish border the English were repelled, and an opportunity offered to the Scots of

cutting off their retreat. The king gave his orders to that end, but his barons obstinately refused to advance beyond the frontier. One measure more was wanting to drive their sovereign to despair. In a subsequent engagement with the English 10,000 of the Scots deliberately surrendered themselves prisoners to 500 of the enemy. The high spirit of James sunk under his contending passions, and he died of a broken heart in the 33d year of his age, A. D. 1,542, a few days after the birth of a daughter, yet more unfortunate than her father, Mary queen of Scots.

SECTION XXXIII.

OF THE ANCIENT CONSTITUTION OF THE SCOTTISH GOVERNMENT.

1. We have seen that it was a constant policy of the Scottish kings to abase the power of their nobles; and that the struggle for power was the source of much misery and bloodshed. But this policy was necessary, from the dangerous ambition and lawless tyranny of those nobles, who frequently aimed at overturning the throne, and exercised the severest oppression on all their dependents. The interests, therefore, of the people, no less than the security of the prince, demanded the repression of this overweening and destructive power. The aristocracy was, however, preserved, no less by its own strength than by the concurrence of circumstances, and chiefly by the violent and unhappy fate of the sovereigns. Meantime, though the measures which the kings pursued were not successful, yet their consequences were beneficial. They restrained, if they did not destroy, the spirit of feudal oppression, and gave birth to order, wise laws, and a more tranquil administration of government.

2. The legislative power, though nominally resident in the parliament, was virtually in the king, who, by his influence, entirely controled its proceedings. The parliament consisted of three estates, the nobles, the dignified clergy, and the less barons, who were the representatives of the towns and shires. The disposal of benefices, gave the crown the entire command of the churchmen, who were equal to the nobles in number; and at least a majority of the commons were the dependents of the sovereign. A committee, termed the lords of the articles, prepared every measure that was to come before the parliament. By the mode of its election this committee was in effect nominated by the king. It is to the credit of the Scottish princes, that there are few instances of their abusing an authority so extensive as that which they constitutionally enjoyed.

3. The king had anciently the supreme jurisdiction in all causes, civil and criminal, which he generally exercised through the medium of his privy council; but in 1,425 James I. instituted the court of sessions, consisting of the chancellor and certain judges chosen from the three estates. This court was new-modelled by James V., and its jurisdiction limited to civil causes, the cognizance of crimes being committed to the justiciary. The chancellor was the highest officer of the crown, and president of the parliament. To the chamberlain belonged the care of the finances and the public police; to the high steward the charge of the king's household; the constable regulated all matters of military arrangement; and the marshal was the king's lieutenant, and master of the horse.

4. The revenue of the sovereign consisted of his domain, which was extensive, of the feudal casualties and forfeitures, the profits of the wardships of his vassals, the rents of vacant benefices, the pecuniary fines for offences, and the aids or presents occasionally given by the subject; a revenue at all times sufficient for the purposes of government, and the support of the dignity of the crown.

5. The political principles which regulated the conduct of the Scots toward other nations were obvious and simple. It had ever been an object of ambition to England to acquire the sovereignty of Scotland, which was constantly on its guard against this design of its more potent neighbour. It was the wisest policy for Scotland to attach itself to France, the natural enemy of England; an alliance reciprocally courted from similar motives. In those days this attachment was justly deemed patriotic; while the Scots, who were the partisans of England, were with equal justice regarded as traitors to their country. In the period of which we now treat, it was a settled policy of the English sovereigns to have a secret faction in their pay in Scotland, for the purpose of dividing and thus enslaving the nation; and to this source all the subsequent disorders of the latter kingdom are to be attributed.

SECTION XXXIV.

A VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF LITERATURE AND SCIENCE IN EUROPE, FROM THE REVIVAL OF LETTERS TO THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY.

1. The first restorers of learning in Europe were the Arabians, who, in the course of their Asiatic conquests, becoming acquainted with some of the ancient Greek authors, discovered and justly appreciated the knowledge and improvement to be derived from them. The caliphs procured from the eastern emperors copies of the ancient manuscripts, and had them carefully translated into Arabic; esteeming principally those which treated of mathematics, physics, and metaphysics. They disseminated their knowledge in the course of their conquests, and founded schools and colleges in all the countries which they subdued.

2. The western kingdoms of Europe became first acquainted with the learning of the ancients through the medium of those Arabian translations. Charlemagne caused Latin translations to be made from the Arabian, and founded, after the example of the caliphs, the universities of Bononia, Pavia, Osnaburg, and Paris. Alfred with a similar spirit, and by similar means, introduced a taste for literature in England; but the subsequent disorders of the kingdom replunged it into barbarism. The Normans, however, brought from the continent some tincture of ancient learning, which was kept alive in the monasteries, where the monks were meritoriously employed in transcribing a few of the ancient authors, along with the legendary lives of the saints.

3. In this dawn of literature in England appeared Henry of Huntington and Geoffrey of Monmouth, names distinguished in the earliest annals of poetry and romance; John of Salisbury, a moralist; William of Malmesbury, annalist of the history of England before the reign of Stephen; Giraldus Cambrensis, known in the fields of histo-

ry, theology, and poetry; Joseph of Exeter, author of two Latin epic poems on the Trojan war, and the war of Antioch, or the crusade, which are read with pleasure even in the present day.

4. But this era of a good taste in letters was of short duration. The taste for classical composition and historical information yielded to the barbarous subtleties of scholastic divinity taught by Lombard and Abelard, and to the abstruse doctrines of the Roman law, which began to engage the general attention from the recent discovery of the pandects at Amalphi, 1,137. The amusements of the vulgar in those periods were metrical and prose romances, unintelligible prophecies, and fables of giants and enchanters.

5. In the middle of the thirteenth century appeared a distinguished genius, Roger Bacon, an English friar, whose comprehensive mind was filled with all the stores of ancient learning; who possessed a discriminating judgment to separate the precious ore from the dross, and a power of invention fitted to advance in every science which was the object of his study. He saw the insufficiency of the school philosophy, and first recommended the prosecution of knowledge by experiment and the observation of nature. He made discoveries of importance in astronomy, optics, chemistry, medicine, and mechanics. He reformed the kalendar, discovered the construction of telescopic glasses forgotten after his time, and revived by Galileo, and has left a plain intimation of his knowledge of the composition of gun-powder. Yet this superior genius believed in the possibility of discovering an elixir for the prolongation of life, in the transmutation of metals into gold, and in judicial astrology.

6. A general taste prevailed for poetical composition in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. The troubadours of Provence wrote sonnets, madrigals, and satirical ballads; and excelled in extempore dialogues on the subject of love, which they treated in a metaphysical and Platonic strain. They contended for the prize of poetry at solemn meetings, where princes, nobles, and the most illustrious ladies attended to decide between the rival bards; and some of those princes, as Richard I. of England, Frederick I. emperor of Germany, are celebrated as troubadours of eminence. Many fragments yet remain of their compositions.

7. The transference of the papal seat to Avignon, in the fourteenth century, familiarized the Italian poets with the songs of the troubadours, and gave a tincture of the Provencal style to their compositions, which is very observable in the poetry of Petrarch and of Dante. The *Divina Comedia* of Dante first introduced the machinery of angels and devils in the room of the pagan mythology, and is a work containing many examples of the terrible sublime. The *Sonnets* and *Canzoni* of Petrarch are highly tender and pathetic, though vitiated with a quaintness and conceit, which is a prevalent feature of the Italian poetry. The *Decamerone* of Boccacio, a work of the same age, is a master-piece for invention, ingenious narrative, and acquaintance with human nature. These authors have fixed the standard of the Italian language.

8. Contemporary with them, and of rival merit, was the English Chaucer, who displays all the talents of Boccacio, through the medium of excellent poetry. The works of Chaucer discover an extensive knowledge of the sciences, an acquaintance both with ancient and modern learning, particularly the literature of France and Italy, and, above all, a most acute discernment of life and manners.

9. Of similar character are the poems of Gower, but of a grave-

cast, and a more chastened morality. Equal to these eminent men in every species of literary merit was the accomplished James I. of Scotland, of which his remaining writings bear convincing testimony. The doubtful Rowley of Bristol is said to have adorned the fifteenth century.

10. Spain at this period began to emerge from ignorance and barbarism, and to produce a few of those works which are enumerated with approbation in the whimsical but judicious criticism of Cervantes. (Don Quixote. b. 1, c. 6.)

11. Though poetry attained in those ages a considerable degree of splendour, yet there was little advancement in general literature and science. History was disgraced by the intermixture of miracle and fable; yet we find much curious information in the writings of Matthew of Westminster, of Walsingham, Everard, Duysburg, and the Chronicles of Froissart and Monstrelet. Philip de Commines happily describes the reigns of Lewis XI. and Charles VIII. of France. Villani and Platina are valuable recorders of the affairs of Italy.

12. A taste for classical learning in the fifteenth century led to the discovery of many of the ancient authors. Poggio discovered the writings of Quintilian and several of the compositions of Cicero, which stimulated to farther research, and to the recovery of many valuable remains of Greek and Roman literature. But this taste was not generally diffused. France and England were extremely barbarous. The library at Oxford contained only 600 volumes, and there were but four classics in the royal library at Paris. But a brighter period was approaching. On the fall of the eastern empire, in the end of the fifteenth century, the dispersion of the Greeks diffused a taste for polite literature over all the west of Europe. A succession of popes, endowed with a liberal and enlightened spirit, gave every encouragement to learning and the sciences; and, above all, the noble discovery of the *art of printing* contributed to their rapid advancement and dissemination, and gave a certain assurance of the perpetuation of every valuable art, and the progressive improvement of human knowledge.

13. The rise of dramatic composition among the moderns is to be traced to the absurd and ludicrous representation, in the churches, of the scripture histories, called in England mysteries, miracles, and moralities. These were first exhibited in the twelfth century, and continued to the sixteenth, when they were prohibited by law in England. Of these we have amusing specimens in Warton's History of English Poetry. Profane dramas were substituted in their place; and a mixture of the sacred and profane appears to have been known in France as early as 1,300. In Spain the farcical mysteries keep their ground to the present day, and no regular composition for the stage was known till the end of the sixteenth century. The Italians are allowed by their own writers to have borrowed their theatre from the French and English.

See Kett's Elements of General Knowledge, vol. I.

SECTION XXXV.

VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF COMMERCE IN EUROPE BEFORE THE PORTUGUESE DISCOVERIES.

1. Before we give an account of the discoveries of the Portuguese in the fifteenth century, in exploring a new route to India, we shall present a short view of the progress of commerce in Europe down to that period.

The boldest naval enterprise of the ancients was the Periplus of Hanno, who sailed from Carthage to the coast of Guinea, within four or five degrees of the equator, A. C. 570. The ancients did not know that Africa was almost circumnavigable. They had a very limited knowledge of the habitable earth. They believed that both the torrid and frigid zones were uninhabitable; and they were very imperfectly acquainted with a great part of Europe, Asia, and Africa. Denmark, Sweden, Prussia, Poland, and the greater part of Russia, were unknown to them. In Ptolemy's description of the globe, the 63d degree of latitude is the limit of the earth to the north, and the equator to the south.

2. Britain was circumnavigated in the time of Domitian. The Romans frequented it for the purposes of commerce; and Tacitus mentions London as a celebrated resort of merchants. The commerce of the ancients was, however, chiefly confined to the Mediterranean. In the flourishing periods of the eastern empire the merchandise of India was imported from Alexandria; but, after the conquest of Egypt by the Arabians, it was carried up the Indus, and thence by land to the Oxus, which then ran directly into the Caspian sea; thence it was brought up the Wolga, and again carried over land to the Don, whence it descended into the Euxine.

3. After the fall of the western empire commerce was long at a stand in Europe. When Attila was ravaging Italy the Veneti took refuge in the small islands at the northern extremity of the Adriatic, and there founded Venice, A. D. 452, which began very early to equip small fleets, and trade to the coasts of Egypt and the Levant, for spices and other merchandise of Arabia and India. Genoa, Florence, and Pisa, imitated this example, and began to acquire considerable wealth; but Venice retained her superiority over these rival states, and gained considerable territory on the opposite coast of Illyricum and Dalmatia.

4. The maritime cities of Italy profited by the crusades, in furnishing the armies with supplies, and bringing home the produce of the east. The Italian merchants established manufactures similar to those of Constantinople. Rogero king of Sicily brought artisans from Athens, and established a silk manufacture at Palermo in 1,130. The sugar cane was planted in Sicily in the twelfth century, and thence carried to Madeira, and finally made its way to the West Indies.

5. In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries the Italians were the only commercial people of Europe. Venice set the first example of a national bank in 1,157, which has maintained its credit to the present times. The only trade of France, Spain, and Germany, at this time, was carried on at stated fairs and markets, to which traders resorted from all quarters, paying a tax to the sovereigns or the lords

of the territory. The more enterprising bought a privilege of exemption, by paying at once a large sum, and were thence called *free traders.*

6. In the middle ages the Italian merchants, usually called Lombards, were the factors of all the European nations, and were enticed, by privileges granted by the sovereigns, to settle in France, Spain, Germany, and England. They were not only traders in commodities, but bankers, or money dealers. In this last business they found a severe restraint from the canon law prohibiting the taking of interest; and hence, from the necessary privacy of their bargains, there were no bounds to exorbitant usury. The Jews, too, who were the chief dealers in money, brought disrepute on the trade of banking, and frequently suffered, on that account, the most intolerable persecution and confiscation of their fortunes. To guard against these injuries they invented *bills of exchange.*

7. The Lombard merchants excited a spirit of commerce, and gave birth to manufactures, which were generally encouraged by the sovereigns in the different kingdoms of Europe. Among the chief encouragements was the institution of corporations or monopolies, the earliest of which are traced up to the eleventh century; a policy beneficial, and perhaps necessary, where the spirit of industry is low, and manufactures are in their infancy; but of hurtful consequence where trade and manufactures are flourishing.

8. Commerce began to spread toward the north of Europe about the end of the twelfth century. The sea-ports on the Baltic traded with France and Britain, and with the Mediterranean by the staple of the isle of Oleron, near the mouth of the Garonne, then possessed by the English. The commercial laws of Oleron and Wisbuy (on the Baltic) regulated for many ages the trade of Europe. To protect their trade from piracy, Lubec, Hamburgh, and most of the northern sea-ports, joined in a confederacy, under certain general regulations, termed the *league of the hanse-towns;* a union so beneficial in its nature, and so formidable in point of strength, that its alliance was courted by the predominant powers of Europe.

9. For the trade of the hanse-towns with the southern kingdoms, Bruges, on the coast of Flanders, was found a convenient entrepot, and thither the Mediterranean merchants brought the commodities of India and the Levant to exchange with the produce and manufactures of the north. The Flemings now began to encourage trade and manufactures, which thence spread to the Brabanters: but their growth being checked by the impolitic sovereigns of those provinces, they found a more favourable field in England, which was destined to derive from them the great source of its national opulence.

10. The Britons had very early seen the importance of commerce. Bede relates that London was frequented by foreigners for the purpose of trade in 614; and William of Malmesbury speaks of it, in 1,041, as a most populous and wealthy city. The cinque ports, Dover, Hastings, Hythe, Romney, and Sandwich, obtained in that age their privileges and immunities, on condition of furnishing each five ships of war. These ports are now eight in number, and send their members to parliament.

11. The woollen manufacture of England was considerable in the twelfth century. Henry II. incorporated the weavers of London, and gave them various privileges. By a law passed in his reign, all cloth made of foreign wool was condemned to be burnt. Scotland at this time seems to have possessed a considerable source of wealth,

as is evident from the payment of the ransom of William the lion, which was 10,000 merks, equal to 100,000l. sterling of present money. The English found it difficult to raise double that sum for the ransom of Richard I., and the Scots contributed a proportion of it. The English sovereigns at first drew a considerable revenue from the custom on wool exported to be manufactured abroad; but becoming soon sensible of the benefit of encouraging its home manufacture, they invited, for that purpose, the foreign artisans and merchants to reside in England, and gave them valuable immunities. Edward III. was peculiarly attentive to trade and manufactures, as appears by the laws passed in his reign; and he was bountiful in the encouragement of foreign artisans. The succeeding reigns were not so favourable. During the civil wars of York and Lancaster the spirit of trade and manufactures greatly declined; nor did they begin to revive and flourish till the accession of Henry VII. In that interval of their decay in England commerce and the arts were encouraged in Scotland by James I. and his successors, as much as the comparatively rude and turbulent state of the kingdom would permit. The herring fishery then began to be vigorously promoted; and the duties laid on the exportation of woollen cloth show that this manufacture was then considerable among the Scots. Glasgow began to acquire wealth by the fisheries in 1,420, but had little or no foreign trade till after the discovery of America and the West Indies.

12. Henry VII. gave the most liberal encouragement to trade and manufactures, particularly the woollen, by inviting foreign artisans, and establishing them at Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, and other places. The navigation acts were passed in his reign, and commercial treaties formed with the continental kingdoms for the protection of the merchant-shipping. Such was the state of commerce at the time when the Portuguese made those great discoveries which opened a new route to India, and gave a circulation to their wealth over most of the nations of Europe.

SECTION XXXVI.

DISCOVERIES OF THE PORTUGUESE IN THE FIFTEENTH CENTURY, AND THEIR EFFECTS ON THE COMMERCE OF EUROPE.

1. The polarity of the magnet had been known in Europe as early as the thirteenth century; but the compass was not used in sailing till the middle of the fourteenth; and another century had elapsed from that period, while yet the European mariners scarcely ventured out of the sight of their coasts. The eastern ocean was little known; and the Atlantic was supposed to be a boundless expanse of sea, extending probably to the eastern shores of Asia. In the belief that the torrid zone was uninhabitable, a promontory on the African coast, in the 29th degree of north latitude, was termed Cape Non, as forming an impassable limit.

2. In the beginning of the fifteenth century John king of Portugal sent a few vessels to explore the African coast; and these doubling Cape Non proceeded to Cape Boyador, within two degrees of the northern tropic. Prince Henry, the son of John, equipped a single ship, which, being driven out to sea, landed on the island

of Porto Santo. This involuntary experiment emboldened the mariners to abandon their timid mode of coasting, and launch into the open sea. In 1,420 the Portuguese discovered Madeira, where they established a colony, and planted the Cyprus vine, and the sugar cane.

3. The spirit of enterprise being thus awakened, prince Henry obtained from Eugene IV. a bull granting to the Portuguese the property of all the countries which they might discover between Cape Non and India. Under John II. of Portugal the Cape Verd islands were discovered and colonized; and the fleets, advancing to the coast of Guinea, brought home gold dust, gums, and ivory. Having passed the equator, the Portuguese entered a new hemisphere, and boldly proceeded to the extremity of the continent. In 1,479 a fleet under Vasco de Gama doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and, sailing onwards beyond the mouths of the Arabian and Persian gulfs, arrived at Calicut, on the Malabar coast, after a voyage of 1,500 leagues, performed in thirteen months.

4. De Gama entered into an alliance with the rajah of Calicut, a tributary of the Mogul empire, and returned to Lisbon with specimens of the wealth and produce of the country. A succeeding fleet formed settlements, and, vanquishing the opposition of the native princes, soon achieved the conquest of all the coast of Malabar. The city of Goa, taken by storm, became the residence of a Portuguese viceroy and the capital of their Indian settlements.

5. The Venetians, who had hitherto engrossed the Indian trade by Alexandria, now lost it for ever. After an ineffectual project of cutting through the isthmus of Suez, they attempted to intercept the Portuguese by their fleets stationed at the mouth of the Red sea and Persian gulf, but were every where encountered by a superior force. The Portuguese made settlements in both the gulfs, and vigorously prosecuted their conquests on the Indian coast and sea. The rich island of Ceylon, the kingdoms of Pegu, Siam, and Malacca, were speedily subdued, and a settlement established in Bengal. They proceeded onward to China, hitherto scarcely known to the Europeans but by the account of a single Venetian traveller, Marco Paolo, in the thirteenth century; and they obtained the emperor's permission to form a settlement at Macao, thus opening a commerce with that immense empire, and the neighbouring islands of Japan. In the space of fifty years the Portuguese were masters of the whole trade of the Indian ocean, and sovereigns of a large extent of Asiatic territory.

6. These discoveries produced a wonderful effect on the commerce of Europe. The produce of the spice islands was computed to be worth annually 200,000 ducats to Lisbon. The Venetians, after every effort to destroy the trade of the Portuguese, offered to become sole purchasers of all the spice brought to Europe, but were refused. Commercial industry was roused in every quarter, and manufactures made a rapid progress. Lyons, Tours, Abbeville, Marseilles, Bordeaux, acquired immense wealth. Antwerp and Amsterdam became the great marts of the north. The former owed its splendour to the decline of Bruges, which was ruined by civil commotions; and the Portuguese made Antwerp their entrepot for the supply of the northern kingdoms. It continued highly flourishing till the revolt of the Netherlands, in the end of the sixteenth century, when it was taken by the Spaniards, and its port destroyed by blocking up the Scheld.

7. The trade of Holland rose on the fall of Antwerp. Amsterdam

became considerable after the decline of the hanseatic confederacy in 1,428, but rose into splendour and high commercial opulence from the destruction of Antwerp. The United Provinces, dependent on industry alone for their support, became a model of commercial activity to all nations.

8. Britain felt the effect of that general stimulus which the Portuguese discoveries gave to the trade of Europe; but other causes had a more sensible operation to that end in England. The reformation, by suppressing the convents, and restoring many thousands to society, and the cutting off the papal exactions, which drained the kingdom of its wealth, the politic laws passed in the reign of Henry VIII., and the active patriotism of Elizabeth, were vigorous incentives to national industry.

9. From the time of Henry VIII. to the present, the commerce and manufactures of England have been uniformly progressive. The rental of England in lands and houses did not then exceed five millions *per annum;* it is now above eighteen millions. The unmanufactured wool of one year's growth is supposed to be worth two millions; when manufactured, as it now is, by British hands, it is worth eight millions. Above a million and a half of hands are employed in that manufacture alone; half a million are employed in the manufactures of iron, steel, copper, brass, lead; the linen manufactures of England, Scotland, and Ireland, occupy nearly a million; and a number not much inferior is employed in the fisheries. It is presumable, on the whole, that nearly a fourth of the population of the united kingdoms is actually employed in commerce and manufactures.

10. The vast increase of the national wealth of Britain appears chiefly, 1, from the increase of population, which is supposed to be nearly five to one (at least in the large cities) since the reign of Elizabeth; 2, from the great addition made to the cultivated lands of the kingdom, and the high improvement of agriculture since that period, whence more than quadruple the quantity of food is produced; 3, from the increase of the commercial shipping, at least sixfold within the same time; 4, from the comparative low rate of interest, which is demonstrative of the increase of wealth. The consequences of the diffusion of the commercial spirit are most important to the national welfare. From general industry arises affluence, joined to a spirit of independence; and on this spirit rests the freedom of the British constitution, and all the blessings which are enjoyed under its protection.

SECTION XXXVII.

GERMANY AND FRANCE IN THE REIGNS OF CHARLES V. AND FRANCIS I.

1. We resume the detail of the history of Europe at the beginning of the sixteenth century, previously remarking, that the Germanic empire continued for above fifty years in a state of languid tranquillity, from the time of Albert II., the successor of Sigismund, during the long reign of Frederick III., whose son Maximilian acquired, by his marriage with Mary, duchess of Burgundy, the sovereignty of the Netherlands. Maximilian was elected Emperor in 1,493; and, by establishing a perpetual peace between the separate Germanic states, laid the foundation of the subsequent grandeur of the empire.

2. Philip archduke of Austria, son of Maximilian, married Jane, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella; and of that marriage the eldest son was Charles V., who succeeded to the throne of Spain in 1,516, and, on the death of his grandfather Maximilian, preferred his claim to the vacant imperial throne. He had for his competitor Francis I. of France, who had distinguished himself by the conquest of the Milanese, and the adjustment of the contending interests of the Italian states. The German electors, afraid of the exorbitant power both of Charles and of Francis, would have rejected both, and conferred the imperial crown on Frederick duke of Saxony; but this extraordinary man declined the proffered dignity, and his council determined the election in favour of Charles of Austria, 1,519.

3. Charles V. and Francis I. were now declared enemies, and their mutual claims on each other's dominions were the subject of perpetual hostility. The emperor claimed Artois as part of the Netherlands. Francis prepared to make good his right to the Two Sicilies. Charles had to defend Milan, and to support his title to Navarre, which had been wrested from France by his grandfather Ferdinand. Henry VIII. of England was courted by the rival monarchs, as the weight of England was sufficient to turn the scale, where the power of each was nearly balanced.

4. The first hostile attack was made by Francis on the kingdom of Navarre, which he won and lost in the course of a few months. The emperor attacked Picardy, and his troops at the same time drove the French out of the Milanese. On the death of Leo X., Charles placed cardinal Adrian on the papal throne, 1,521; and by the promise of elevating Wolsey, the minister of Henry VIII., to that dignity, on the death of Adrian, gained the alliance of the English monarch in his war against France.

5. At this critical time Francis imprudently quarrelled with his best general, the constable of Bourbon, who, in revenge, deserted the emperor, and was by him invested with the chief command of his armies. The imperial generals were far superior in abilities to their opponents. The French were defeated at Biagrassa, and Charles was carrying every thing before him in Italy, when Francis entered the Milanese, and retook the capital; but, in the subsequent battle of Pavia, his troops were entirely defeated, and the French monarch became the constable of Bourbon's prisoner, 1,525.

6. The emperor made no advantage of his good fortune. By the treaty of Madrid, Francis regained his liberty, on yielding to Charles the duchy of Burgundy, and the superiority of Flanders and Artois. He gave his two sons as hostages for the fulfilment of these conditions; but the states refused to ratify them, and the failure was compromised for a sum of money.

7. On the renewal of the war, Henry VIII. took part with France, and Charles lost an opportunity of obtaining the sovereignty of Italy. The papal army in the French interest was defeated by the constable of Bourbon, and the pope himself made prisoner; but Bourbon was killed in the siege of Rome, and Charles allowed the pope to purchase his release.

8. After the conclusion of the peace of Cambray, 1,529, Charles visited Italy, and received the imperial diadem from pope Clement VII. The Turks having invaded Hungary, the emperor marched against them in person, and compelled the sultan Solyman, with an army of 300,000 men, to evacuate the country. He soon after embarked for Africa, to replace the dethroned Muley Hassan in the

sovereignty of Tunis and Algiers, which had been usurped by Hayradin Barbarossa; and he achieved the enterprise with honour. His reputation at this period exceeded that of all the sovereigns of Europe, for political ability, real power, and the extent and opulence of his dominions.

9. Francis was glad to ally himself even with the Turks to cope with the imperialists, and Barbarossa invaded Italy; but the troops of Charles prevented the co-operation of the French, and separately defeated and dispersed the allied powers, while another army of the imperialists ravaged Champagne and Picardy.

10. In the interval of a truce, which was concluded at Nice, for ten years between the rival monarchs, Charles passed through France to the Netherlands, and was entertained by Francis with the most magnificent hospitality. He had promised to grant to the French king his favourite desire, the investiture of Milan; but failing to keep his word, the war was renewed with double animosity. The French and Turkish fleets attacked Nice, but were dispersed by the Genoese admiral, Andrea Doria. In Italy the French were victorious in the battle of Cerizoles, but drew no benefit from this partial advantage. The imperialists, on the whole, had a decided superiority, and France must have been undone, if the disorders of Germany, from the contending interests of the catholics and protestants, had not forced the emperor to conclude the treaty of Crepi with Francis, 1,544. At the same time Francis purchased a peace with Henry VIII., who had again taken part with his rival. Francis died soon after, in 1,547; a prince of great spirit and abilities, and of a generous and noble mind, unfortunate only from the necessity of struggling against a power which overmatched him both in policy and in resources.

11. A short time before this period, was founded the order of the jesuits by Ignatius Loyola, 1,535. The principle of the order was implicit obedience and submission to the pope. The brethren were not confined to their cloisters, but allowed to mix with the world; and thus, by gaining the confidence of princes and statesmen, they were enabled to direct the policy of nations to the great end of establishing the supreme authority of the holy see The wealth which they accumulated, the extent of their power, and the supposed consequences of their intrigues to the peace of nations, excited at length a general hostility to their order; and the institution has recently been abolished in all the kingdoms of Europe.

12. If Charles V. aimed at universal empire, he was ever at a distance from the object of his wishes. The formidable confederacy of the protestants to preserve their liberties and their religion, gave him perpetual disquiet in Germany. He never could form his dominions into a well connected body, from the separate national interests of the Spaniards, Flemish, and Germans; and even the imperial states were divided by their jealousies, political and religious. The hostilities of foreign powers gave him continual annoyance. He found in Henry II., the successor of Francis, an antagonist as formidable as his father. His cares and difficulties increased as he advanced in life, and at length entirely broke the vigour of his mind. In a state of melancholy despondency he retired from the world at the age of fifty-six, resigning first the kingdom of Spain to his son Philip II., 1,556, and afterwards the imperial crown in favour of his brother Ferdinand, who was elected emperor on the 24th day of February, 1,558.

SECTION XXXVIII.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE CONSTITUTION OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

1. Previously to the reign of Maximilian I., the Germanic empire was subject to all the disorders of the feudal governments. The general diets of the state were tumultuous and indecisive, and their constant wars with one another kept the whole in anarchy and barbarism. Wenceslaus, in 1,383, endeavoured to remedy those evils by the enactment of a general peace; but no effectual measures were taken for securing it. Albert II. attempted to accomplish the same end, and had some success. He divided Germany into six circles, each regulated by its own diet; but the jealousies of the states prompted them constantly to hostilities, which there was no superior power sufficient to restrain.

2. At length Maximilian I. procured, in 1,500, that solemn enactment which established a perpetual peace among the Germanic states, under the cogent penalty of the aggressor being treated as a common enemy. He established the imperial chamber for the settlement of all differences. The empire was divided anew into ten circles, each circle sending its representatives to the imperial chamber, and bound to enforce the public laws through its own territory. A regency was appointed to subsist in the intervals of the diet, composed of twenty members, over whom the emperor presided.

3. These regulations, however wise, would probably have failed of their end, if the influence of the house of Austria, which has for three centuries continued to occupy the imperial throne, had not enforced obedience to them. The ambition and policy of Charles V. would have been dangerous to the freedom of the German princes, if the new system of preserving a balance of power in Europe had not made these princes find allies and protectors sufficient to traverse the emperor's schemes of absolute dominion. He attained, however, an authority far beyond that of any of his predecessors. The succeeding emperors imitated his policy; but, as they did not possess equal talents, they found yet stronger obstacles to their encroachments on the freedom of the states.

4. The Germanic liberties were settled for the last time by the treaty of Westphalia, in 1,648, which fixed the emperor's prerogatives, and the privileges of the states. The constitution of the empire is not framed for the ordinary ends of government, the prosperity and happiness of the people. It regards not the rights of the subjects, but only the independence of the several princes; and its sole object is to maintain each in the enjoyment of his sovereignty, and prevent usurpations and encroachments on one another's territories. It has no relation to the particular government of the states, each of which has its own laws and constitution, some more free, and others more despotic.

5. The general diet has the power of enacting the public laws of the empire. It consists of three colleges, the electors, the princes, and the free cities. All such public laws, and all general measures, are the subject of the separate deliberation of the electoral college and that of the princes. When jointly approved by them, the resolu-

tion is canvassed by the college of the free cities, and, if agreed to, becomes a *placitum* of the empire. If approved finally by the emperor, it is a *conclusum*, or general law. If disapproved, the resolution is of no effect. Moreover, the emperor must be the proposer of all general laws. Still farther, no complaint or request can be made by any of the princes to the diet without the approbation of the elector archbishop of Mentz, who may refuse it at his pleasure. These constitutional defects are the more hurtful in their consequences, from the separate and often contending interests of the princes, who have all the rights of sovereignty, the power of contracting foreign alliances, and are frequently possessed of foreign dominions of far greater value than their imperial territories.

6. The Germanic constitution has, however, in some respects, its advantages. The particular diets of each circle tend to unite those princes in all matters of national concern, whatever may be the discordance of their individual interests. The regulations made in those diets compensate the want of a general legislative power. Beside the circular diets, the electors, the princes, the free cities, the catholics, and the protestants, hold their particular diets, when their common interests require it; and these powers balance one another. Considered, therefore, solely in the light of a league of several independent princes and states, associating for their common benefit, the Germanic constitution has many advantages; in promoting general harmony, securing the rights of its members, and preventing the weak from being oppressed by the strong.

SECTION XXXIX.

OF THE REFORMATION IN GERMANY AND SWITZERLAND, AND THE REVOLUTION IN DENMARK AND SWEDEN.

1. The age of Charles V. is the era of the reformation of religion, of the discovery of the new world, and of the highest splendour of the fine arts in Italy and the south of Europe. We shall treat in order of each of these great objects; and, first, of the reformation.

The voluptuous taste and the splendid projects of pope Leo X. demanding large supplies of money, he instituted through all the christian kingdoms a sale of indulgences, or remittances from the pains of purgatory. This traffic being abused to the most shocking purposes, Martin Luther, an Augustine friar, ventured to preach against it, and to inveigh with acrimony against the power which authorized it. He found many willing hearers, particularly in the electorate of Saxony, of which the prince Frederick was his friend and protector. Leo X. condemned his tenets by a papal bull, which only increased the zeal and indignation of the preacher. In a book which he published, entitled the *Babylonish Captivity*, he applied all the scriptural attributes of the whore of Babylon to the papal hierarchy, and attacked with equal force and virulence the doctrines of transubstantiation, purgatory, the celibacy of the priests, and the refusal of wine to the people in the communion. The book being condemned to the flames, Luther burned the pope's bull and the decretals at Wittemberg, 1,520.

2. One of the first champions, who took up the pen against Lu-

ther, was Henry VIII. of England; whose book, presented to pope Leo, procured him the title now annexed to his crown, of defender of the faith. The rest of Europe seemed to pay little attention to these rising controversies. Charles V., studious of the friendship of the pope, took part against Luther, and summoned him to answer for his doctrines in the diet of Worms. The reformer defended himself with great spirit, and, aided by his friend the elector, made a safe escape into Saxony, where the mass was now universally abolished, the images destroyed, and the convents shut up. The friars and nuns returned to the world, and Luther took a nun for his wife. Nor did these secularized priests abuse their new freedom, for their manners were decent, and their life exemplary.

3. Erasmus has justly censured the impolicy of the catholic clergy in their modes of resisting and suppressing the new doctrines. They allowed them to be discussed in sermons before the people, and employed for that purpose furious and bigoted declaimers, who only increased and widened differences. They would not yield in the most insignificant trifle, nor acknowledge a single fault; and they persecuted with the utmost cruelty all whose opinions were not agreeable to their own standard of faith. How wise is the counsel of lord Bacon! "There is no better way to stop the rise of new sects and schisms, than to reform abuses, compound the lesser differences, proceed mildly from the first, refrain from sanguinary persecutions, and rather to soften and win the principal leaders, by gracing and advancing them, than to enrage them by violence and bitterness." *Bac. Mor. Ess. Sect.* 1. *Ess.* 12.

4. Switzerland followed in the path of reformation. Zuinglius of Zurich preached the new tenets with such zeal and effect, that the whole canton was converted, and the senate publicly abolished the mass, and purified the churches. Berne took the same measures with greater solemnity, after a discussion in the senate which lasted two months. Basle imitated the same example. Other cantons armed in defence of their faith; and in a desperate engagement, in which the protestants were defeated, Zuinglius was slain, 1,531.

5. Lutheranism was now making its progress towards the north of Europe. Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, were at this time governed by Christiern II., the Nero of the north. The Swedes, reluctantly submitting to the yoke, were kept in awe by Troll, archbishop of Upsal, a faithful minister of the tyrant in all his schemes of oppression and cruelty. On intelligence of a revolt, the king and his primate, armed with a bull from pope Leo X., massacred the whole body of the nobles and senators, amidst the festivity of a banquet. Gustavus Vasa, grand nephew of Charles Canutson, formerly king of Sweden, escaped from this carnage, and concealed himself in the mines of Dalecarlia. By degrees assembling a small army, he defeated the generals of Christiern, whose cruelties at length determined the united nations to vindicate their rights, by a solemn sentence of deposition. The tyrant fled to Flanders, and Frederick duke of Holstein was elected sovereign of the three kingdoms; but Sweden, adhering to her heroic deliverer, and the heir of her ancient kings, acknowledged alone the sovereignty of Gustavus Vasa, 1,521. The bull of Leo X., and its bloody consequences, were sufficient to convert Sweden and Denmark to the tenets of the reformed religion. Gustavus enjoyed his sceptre many years in peace, and contributed greatly to the happiness and prosperity of his kingdom.

6. As early as 1,525, the states of Saxony, Brunswick, Hesse Cassel, and the cities of Strasburgh and Frankfort, had embraced the doctrines of the reformation. Luther had now a species of spiritual control, which he exercised by means of a synod of six reformers. His successful example gave rise to reformers of different kinds, whose doctrines were less consonant to reason or good policy. Two fanatics of Saxony, Storck and Muncer, condemned infant baptism, and therefore were termed anabaptists. They preached universal equality and freedom of religious opinion, but, with singular inconsistency, attempted to propagate their doctrines by the sword. They were defeated at Mulhausen, and Muncer died on a scaffold; but the party seemed to acquire new courage. They surprised Munster, expelled the bishop, and anointed for their king a tailor named Jack of Leyden, who defended the city with the most desperate courage, but fell at length, with his party under the superior force of regular troops. The anabaptists, thus sanguinary in their original tenets and practices, have long ago become peaceable and harmless subjects.

7. The united power of the pope and emperor found it impossible to check the progress of the reformation. The diet of Spires proposed articles of accommodation between the Lutherans and catholics. Fourteen cities of Germany, and several of the electors, protested formally against those articles; and hence the Lutheran party acquired the name of *protestants.* They presented to the assembly at Augsburg a confession of their faith, which is the standard of the protestant doctrines.

8. The virtuous lives and conduct of the protestant leaders, compared with those of the higher clergy among the catholics, formed a contrast very favourable to the progress of the reformation. The solemn manner in which the states of Switzerland, and particularly Geneva, had proceeded, in calmly discussing every point of controversy, and yielding only to the force of rational conviction, attracted the respect of all Europe. John Calvin, a Frenchman, becoming a zealous convert to the new doctrines, was the first who gave them a systematic form by his *Institutions*, and enforced their authority by the establishment of synods, consistories, and deacons. The magistracy of Geneva gave these ordinances the authority of law; and they were adopted by six of the Swiss cantons, by the protestants of France, and the presbyterians of Scotland and England. The ablest advocates of Calvin will find it difficult to vindicate him from the charge of intolerance and the spirit of persecution; but these, which are vices or defects of the individual, attach not in the least to the doctrines of the reformation, which are subject to the test of reason, and can derive no blemish or dishonour from the men who propagated them, or even from the motives which might influence some of their earliest supporters. This observation applies more particularly to the subject of the ensuing section.

See Kett's Elements of General Knowledge, Vol. I.

SECTION XL.

OF THE REFORMATION IN ENGLAND UNDER HENRY VIII., AND HIS SUCCESSORS.

1. Wickliff, in the middle of the fourteenth century, by an attack on the doctrines of transubstantiation, indulgences, and auricular confession, and still more by a translation of the scriptures into the vernacular tongue, had prepared the minds of the people of England for a revolution in religious opinions; but his professed followers were not numerous. The intemperate passions of Henry VIII. were the immediate cause of the reformation in England. He had been married eighteen years to Catharine of Spain, aunt of Charles V., by whom he had three children, one of them, Mary, afterwards queen of England; when, falling in love with Anna Bullen, he solicited Clement VII. for a divorce from Catharine, on the score of her former marriage to his elder brother Arthur. The pope found himself in the painful dilemma of either affronting the emperor, or mortally offending the king of England. In hope that the king's passion might cool, he protracted the time by preliminaries and negotiations, but to no purpose. Henry was resolutely bent on accomplishing his wishes. The Sorbonne and other French universities gave an opinion in his favour. Armed with this sanction, he caused Cranmer archbishop of Canterbury to annul his marriage. The repudiated queen gave place to Anna Bullen. On this occasion Wolsey, the minister of Henry, lost the favour of his master, by opposing, as was believed, his darling measure.

2. Clement VII., from this specimen of the wayward temper of Henry, resolved to keep well with the emperor, and issued his bull, condemnatory of the sentence of the archbishop of Canterbury. Henry immediately proclaimed himself head of the church of England; the parliament ratified his title, and the pope's authority was instantly suppressed in all his dominions, 1,534. He proceeded to abolish the monasteries, and confiscate their treasures and revenues, erecting out of the latter six new bishoprics and a college. The immoralities of the monks were sedulously exposed, the forgery of relics, false miracles, &c. held up to the popular scorn.

3. Yet Henry, though a reformer, and pope in his own kingdom, had not renounced the religion of Rome: he was equally an enemy to the tenets of Luther and Calvin as to the pope's jurisdiction in England. Inconstant in his affections, and a stranger to all humanity, he removed Anna Bullen from the throne to the scaffold, to gratify a new passion for Jane Seymour, a maid of honour, who happily died about a year after. To her succeeded Anne of Cleves, whom he divorced in nine months, to make way for Catharine Howard. She underwent the same fate with Anna Bullen, on a similar suspicion of infidelity to his bed. His sixth wife, Catharine Parr, with difficulty retained her hazardous elevation, but had the good fortune to survive the tyrant.

4. On the death of Henry VIII., 1,547, and the accession of his son Edward VI., the protestant religion prevailed in England, and was favoured by the sovereign; but he died at the early age of fifteen, 1,553; and the sceptre passed to the hands of his sister Mary, an in-

tolerant catholic, and most cruel persecutor of the protestants. In her reign, which was of five years' duration, above 800 miserable victims were burnt at a stake, martyrs to their religious opinions. Mary inherited a congenial spirit with her husband, Philip II. of Spain, whose intolerance cost him the loss of a third part of his dominions.

5. Mary was succeeded in 1558 by her sister Elizabeth, the daughter of Anna Bullen, a protestant, the more zealous from an abhorrence of the character of her predecessor. In her reign the religion of England became stationary. The hierarchy was established in its present form, by archbishops, bishops, priests, and deacons, the king being by law the head of the church. The liturgy had been settled in the reign of Edward VI. The canons are agreeable chiefly to the Lutheran tenets.

Of the reformation in Scotland we shall afterwards treat under a separate section.

SECTION XLI.

OF THE DISCOVERY AND CONQUEST OF AMERICA BY THE SPANIARDS.

1. Among those great events which distinguished the age of Charles V. was the conquest of Mexico by Fernando Cortez, and of Peru by the two brothers, Francis and Gonzalo Pizarro. The discovery of America preceded the first of these events about twenty-seven years; but the account of it has been postponed, that the whole may be shortly treated in connexion.

Christopher Columbus, a Genoese, a man of an enterprising spirit, having in vain solicited encouragement from his native state, from Portugal, and from England, to attempt discoveries in the western ocean, applied to Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. Under the patronage of Isabella, as queen of Castile, he was furnished with three small ships, ninety men, and a few thousand ducats for the expense of his voyage. After thirty-three days' sail from the Canaries he discovered San Salvador, September, 1492; and soon after the islands of Cuba and Hispaniola. He returned to Spain, and brought a few of the natives, some presents of gold, and curiosities of the country. He was treated by the Spaniards with the highest honours, and soon supplied with a suitable armament for the prosecution of his discoveries. In his second voyage he discovered the Caribbees and Jamaica. In a third voyage he descried the continent of America, within ten degrees of the equator, toward the isthmus of Panama. The next year the geographer Americus followed the track of Columbus, and had the undeserved honour of giving his name to this continent.

2. The inhabitants of America and its islands were a race of men quite new to the Europeans. They are of the colour of copper. In some quarters, as in Mexico and Peru, the Spaniards are said to have found a flourishing empire, and a people polished, refined, and luxurious; in others, man was a naked savage, the member of a wandering tribe, whose sole occupation was hunting or war. The savages of the continent were characterized by their cruelty to their enemies, their contempt of death, and their generous affection for their friends. The inhabitants of the islands were a milder race, of gentler manners, and less hardy conformation of body and mind. The larger animals, as the horse, the cow, were unknown in America.

3. Those newly-discovered countries were believed to contain inexhaustible treasures. The Spaniards, under the pretence of religion and policy, treated the inhabitants with the most shocking inhumanity. The rack, the scourge, the faggot, were employed to convert them to christianity. They were hunted like wild beasts, or burnt alive in their thickets and fastnesses. Hispaniola, containing three millions of inhabitants, and Cuba, containing above 600,000, were absolutely depopulated in a few years. It was now resolved to explore the continent; and Fernando Cortez, with eleven ships and 617 men, sailed for that purpose from Cuba in 1,519. Landing at Tabasco, he advanced, though with a brave opposition from the natives, into the interior of the country. The state of Tlascala, after ineffectual resistance, became the ally of the Spaniards. On the approach of the Spaniards to Mexico, the terror of their name had paved the way for an easy conquest.

4. The Mexican empire, though founded little more than a century before this period, had arisen to great splendour. Its sovereign, Montezuma, received the invaders with the reverence due to superior beings. But a short acquaintance opened the eyes of the Mexicans. Finding nothing in the Spaniards beyond what was human, they were daring enough to attack and put to death a few of them. The intrepid Cortez immediately marched to the palace with fifty men, and putting the emperor in irons, carried him off prisoner to his camp; where he afterwards persuaded him to acknowledge himself a vassal of the king of Castile, to hold his crown of the king as his superior, and to subject his dominions to the payment of an annual tribute.

5. Velasquez, governor of Cuba, jealous of Cortez, attempted to supersede him, by despatching a superior army to the continent: but Cortez defeated his troops, and compelled them to join his own banners. In an attack by the Mexicans for the rescue of their sovereign, Montezuma, having offered to mediate between them and their enemies, was indignantly put to death by his own subjects. The whole empire, under its new sovereign, Guatimozin, was now armed against the Spaniards; and while the plains were covered with their archers and spearmen, the lake of Mexico was filled with armed canoes. To oppose the latter the Spaniards built a few vessels under the walls of their city, and soon evinced their superiority to their feeble foe on both elements. The monarch was taken prisoner by the officers of Cortez, and was stretched naked on burning coals, because he refused to discover his treasures. Soon after a conspiracy against the Spaniards was discovered, and the wretched Guatimozin, with all the princes of his blood, were executed on a gibbet. This was the last blow to the power of the Mexicans; and Cortez was now absolute master of the whole empire, 1,525.

6. In the year 1,531 Diego D'Almagro and Francis Pizarro, with 250 foot, 60 horse, and 12 small pieces of cannon, landed in Peru, a large and flourishing empire, governed by an ancient race of monarchs named Incas. The Inca Atabalipa receiving the Spaniards with reverence, they immediately required him to embrace the christian faith, and surrender all his dominions to the emperor Charles V., who had obtained a gift of them from the pope. The proposal being misunderstood, or received with hesitation, Pizarro seized the monarch as his prisoner, while his troops massacred 5,000 of the Peruvians on the spot. The empire was now plundered of prodigious treasures in gold and precious stones; and Atabalipa, being suspected of conceal-

ing a part from his insatiable invaders, was solemnly tried as a criminal, and strangled at a stake.

7. The courage of the Spaniards surpassed even their inhumanity. D'Almagro marched 500 leagues, through continual opposition, to Cusco, and penetrated across the Cordilleras into Chili, two degrees beyond the southern tropic. He was slain in a civil war between him and his associate Francis Pizarro, who was soon after assassinated by the party of his rival. A few years after the Spaniards discovered the inexhaustible silver mines of Potosi, which they compelled the Peruvians to work for their advantage. They are now wrought by the negroes of Africa. The native Peruvians, who are a weakly race of men, were soon almost exterminated by cruelty and intolerable labour. The humane bishop of Chiapa remonstrated with success to Charles V. on this subject; and the residue of this miserable people have been since treated with more indulgence.

8. The Spanish acquisitions in America belong to the crown, and not to the state: they are the absolute property of the sovereign, and regulated solely by his will. They consist of three provinces, Mexico, Peru, and Terra Firma; and are governed by three viceroys, who exercise supreme civil and military authority over their respective provinces. There are eleven courts of audience for the administration of justice, with whose judicial proceedings the viceroys cannot interfere; and their judgments are subject to appeal to the royal council of the Indies, whose jurisdiction extends to every department, ecclesiastical, civil, military, and commercial. A tribunal in Spain, called *Casa de la Contratacion*, regulates the departure of the fleets, and their destination and equipment, under the control of the council of the Indies.

9. The gold and silver of Spanish America, though the exclusive property of the crown of Spain, has, by means of war, marriages of princes, and extension of commerce, come into general circulation, and has greatly increased the quantity of specie, and diminished the value of money over all Europe.

SECTION XLII.

POSSESSIONS OF THE OTHER EUROPEAN NATIONS IN AMERICA. THE UNITED STATES.

1. The example of the Spaniards excited a desire in the other nations of Europe to participate with them in the riches of the new world. The French, in 1,557, attempted to form a settlement on the coast of Brazil, where the Portuguese had already established themselves from the beginning of the century. The colony was divided by faction, and was soon utterly destroyed by the Portuguese. It is one of the richest of the American settlements, both from the produce of its soil, and its mines of gold and precious stones.

2. The Spaniards were in possession of Florida when the French attempted to colonize it in 1,564, without success. The French established a settlement in Acadie in 1,604, and founded Quebec in Canada in 1,608. But these settlements were perpetually subject to attack from the English. In 1,620 the French had not a foot of territory in America. Canada has been repeatedly taken by the

English, and restored, by different treaties, to the French; but since the peace of 1,763 it has been a British settlement. The French drew their greatest advantages from the islands of St. Domingo, Guadaloupe, and Martinico. From their continental possessions of Louisiana, and the settlements on the Mississippi, which they have now lost, they never derived any solid benefit.

3. The Dutch have no settlement on the continent of America, but Surinam, a part of Guiana; and, in the West-Indies, the islands of Currassoa and St. Eustatius. The Danes possess the inconsiderable islands of St. Thomas and Santa Cruz.

4. The British have extensive settlements on the continent of America, and in the West-India islands. England derived her right to her settlements in North America from the first discovery of the country by Sebastian Cabot in 1,497, the year before the discovery of the continent of South America by Columbus: but no attempts were made by the English to colonize any part of the country till nearly a century afterward. This remarkable neglect is in some measure accounted for by the frugal maxims of Henry VII., and the unpropitious circumstances of the reigns of Henry VIII., of Edward VI., and of the bigoted Mary: reigns peculiarly adverse to the extension of industry, trade, and navigation.

5. In 1,585 sir Walter Raleigh undertook to settle a colony in Virginia, so named in honour of his queen; but his attempts were fruitless. Two colonies, destined for settlement, were successively sent over to the Virginian territory; but the first was reduced to great distress, and taken back to England by sir Francis Drake; the second, left unsupported, could never afterward be found.

6. In 1,606 king James granted a patent for settling two plantations on the main coasts of North America. Dividing that portion of the country, which stretches from the thirty-fourth to the forty-fifth degree of latitude, into two districts nearly equal, he granted the southern, called the first colony, to the London company, and the northern, called the second, to the Plymouth company. On the reception of this patent several persons of distinction in the English nation undertook to settle the southern colony; and in 1,607 the first permanent colony was settled in Virginia.

7. The first settlement in the northern district was made at Plymouth in 1,620, by a number of puritans, who, having a few years before left England, to liberate themselves from the oppressions of the episcopal hierarchy, had found a temporary asylum in Holland. In 1,629 the patent of Massachusetts was confirmed by king Charles I.; and in the following year a large body of English non-conformists settled that territory. The settlement of Connecticut was begun in 1,636 by emigrants from Massachusetts. The settlement of Providence, in Rhode Island, was begun the same year by Roger Williams, a clergyman, who, for his refusal to submit to the control of the government of Massachusetts, in religious matters, had been exiled from that colony. New York, originally settled by the Dutch, and by them called New Netherlands, was taken from them by the English in 1,664, at which time it was subjected to the British crown, and settled by English colonists. New Jersey was settled in 1,667, principally by quakers from England. The charter of Pennsylvania was given in 1,681 by king Charles II. to William Penn; and a settlement was begun the same year by a colony consisting principally of quakers. The patent of Maryland was given by king Charles I. to lord Baltimore in 1,632; and two years afterward the colony was

settled by a body of Roman catholics from England. The charter of Carolina was granted by Charles II. to the earl of Clarendon and several associates in 1,663; and that colony was soon after settled by the English. In 1,729 the province was divided into two distinct governments, one of which was called North, and the other South Carolina. The charter of Georgia was given in 1,732 by king George II. to a number of persons in England, who, from motives of patriotism and humanity, projected a settlement in that wild territory. By this measure it was intended to obtain, first, possession of an extensive tract of country; to strengthen the province of Carolina; to rescue a great number of people in Great Britain and Ireland from the miseries of poverty; to open an asylum for persecuted protestants in different parts of Europe; and to attempt the conversion and civilization of the natives. Under the guidance of general Oglethorpe a colony was settled here in 1,733. Nova Scotia was settled in the reign of James I. The Floridas were ceded by Spain to Great Britain at the peace of 1,763; but they were reduced by the arms of his catholic majesty during the American war, and guaranteed to the crown of Spain by the definitive treaty of 1,783.

8. All the British colonies in North America were subject to the government of Great Britain from the time of their settlement until the year 1,775. Opposition to certain measures of the British parliament, the tendency of which, was to claim for the king and parliament of Great Britain, a right to tax colonies, that did not send representatives to parliament, and were therefore hostile to rights and liberties, that had been enjoyed and exercised by the colonies from their origin, having induced the government to send troops to America to enforce submission to their laws, hostilities commenced in April, 1,775. In 1,776 the American congress declared the United States independent. In September 1,783, a definitive treaty of peace was concluded, by which his Britannic majesty acknowledged the United States of America to be free, sovereign, and independent states. In 1,789 the government of these states was organized, conformably to the federal constitution; and George Washington, who had been commander in chief of the revolutionary army, was inaugurated the first president.

9. The British colonies in America, and the United States, are greatly inferior to the Spanish American colonies in natural riches, as they produce neither silver nor gold, nor cochineal; yet they are in general of fertile soil, and considerably improved by industry. They afford a profitable market for European manufactures. Canada furnishes for exportation wheat, flour, flax-seed, lumber, fish, potash, oil, ginseng, furs, pelts, and various other commodities. The produce of the West India islands (Jamaica, Barbadoes, St. Christopher's, Antigua, the Granadas, and other islands), in sugar, coffee, cocoa, rum, molasses, cotton, and other articles, is of very great value to the mother country. The northern states in the federal union furnish masts, ship timber, lumber, potash, furs, pelts, fish, beef, pork, butter, cheese, rye, and maize; the middle states, flour, maize, flax-seed, peas, deer skins, and other pelts; and the southern states, rice, flour, indigo, cotton, tobacco, pork, live oak, tar, pitch, and turpentine.

SECTION XLIII.

OF THE STATE OF THE FINE ARTS IN EUROPE IN THE AGE OF LEO X.

1. In enumerating those great objects which characterized the end of the fifteenth and the beginning of the sixteenth century, we remarked the high advancement to which the fine arts attained in Europe in the age of Leo X. The strong bent which the human mind seems to take, in certain periods, to one class of pursuits in preference to all others, as in the age of Leo X., to the fine arts of painting, sculpture, and architecture, may be partly explained from moral causes; such as the peaceful state of a country, the genius or taste, and the liberal encouragement of its sovereigns, the general emulation that arises where one or two artists are of confessed eminence, and the aid which men derive from the studies and works of one another. These causes have doubtless great influence, but do not seem entirely sufficient to account for the fact. The operation of such causes must be slow and gradual. In the case of the fine arts, the transition from obscurity to splendour was rapid and instantaneous. From the contemptible mediocrity in which they had remained for ages, they rose at one step to the highest pitch of excellence.

2. The arts of painting and sculpture were buried in the west under the ruins of the Roman empire. They gradually declined in the latter ages, as we may perceive by the series of the coins of the lower empire. The Ostrogoths, instead of destroying, sought to preserve the monuments of taste and genius. They were even the inventors of some of the arts dependent on design, as the composition of Mosaic. But, in the middle ages, those arts were at a very low ebb in Europe. They began, however, to revive a little about the end of the thirteenth century. Cimabue, a Florentine, from the sight of the paintings of some Greek artists in one of the churches, began to attempt similar performances, and soon excelled his models. His scholars were Ghiotto, Gaddi, Tassi Cavillini, and Stephano Fiorentino; and they formed an academy at Florence in 1,350.

3. The works of those early painters, with some fidelity of imitation, had not a spark of grace or elegance; and such continued to be the state of the art till toward the end of the fifteenth century, when it arose at once to the summit of perfection. Raphael painted at first in the hard manner of his master Perugino; but soon deserted it, and struck at once into the noble, elegant, and graceful; in short, the imitation of the *antique*. This change was the result of genius alone. The ancient sculptures were familiar to the early painters, but they had looked on them with cold indifference. They were new surveyed by other eyes. Michael Angelo, Raphael, and Leonardo da Vinci, were animated by the same genius that formed the Grecian Appelles, Zeuxis, Glycon, Phidias, and Praxiteles.

4. Nor was Italy alone thus distinguished. Germany, Flanders, and Switzerland, produced in the same age artists of consummate merit. Before the notice of these we shall briefly characterize the schools of Italy.

5. First in order is the school of Florence, of which the most eminent master was Michael Angelo, born in 1,474. His works are

characterized by a profound knowledge of the anatomy of the human figure, perhaps chiefly formed on the contemplation of the ancient sculptures. His paintings exhibit the grand, the sublime, and terrible; but he drew not from the antique its simple grace and beauty.

6. The Roman school was founded by Raphael d'Urbino, born in 1,483. This great painter united almost every excellence of the art. In invention, grace, majestic simplicity, forcible expression of the passions, he stands unrivalled, and far beyond all competition. He has borrowed liberally, but without servility, from the antique.

7. Of the school of Lombardy, or the Venetian, the most eminent artists were Titian, Giorgione, Corregio, and Parmeggiano. Titian is most eminent in portrait, and in the painting of female beauty. Such is the truth of his colouring, that his figures are nature itself. It was the testimony of Michael Angelo to the merits of Titian, that, if he had studied at Rome or Florence, amidst the master-pieces of antiquity, he would have eclipsed all the painters in the world. Titian lived to the age of a hundred. Giorgione, with similar merits, was cut off in the flower of his youth. Correggio was superior in colouring, and in the knowledge of light and shade, to all who have preceded or followed him. This knowledge was the result of study. In other painters those effects are frequently accidental, as we observe that they are not uniform. Parmeggiano imitated the graceful manner of Raphael, but carried it to a degree of affectation.

8. Such were the three original Italian schools. The character o the Florentine is grandeur and sublimity, with great excellence o design, but a want of grace, of skill in colouring, and effect of light and shade. The character of the Roman is equal excellence of design, a grandeur tempered with moderation and simplicity, a high degree of grace and elegance, and a superior knowledge, though not an excellence, in colouring. The character of the Venetian is the perfection of colouring, and the utmost force of light and shade, with an inferiority in every other particular.

9. To the school of Raphael succeeded the second Roman school, or that of the Caraccis, three brothers, of whom Annibal was the most famous. His scholars were, Guercino, Albano, Lanfranc, Domenichino, and Guido. Of these eminent painters the first and last were the best. The elegant contours of Guercino, and the strength sweetness, and majesty of Guido, are the admiration of all true judges of painting.

10. In the same age the Flemish school, though of a quite different character, and inferior to the Italian, shone with great lustre. Oil painting was invented by the Flemings in the fifteenth century; and, in that age, Heemskirk, Frans Floris, Quintin Matsys, and the German Albert Durer, were deservedly distinguished. Of the Flemish school, Rubens, though a painter of a much later age, is the chief ornament. His figures, though too corpulent, are drawn with great truth and nature. He possesses inexhaustible invention, and great skill in the expression of the passions. Switzerland produced Hans Holbein, a painter of great eminence in portrait, and remarkable for truth of colouring. From his residence at the court of Henry VIII. there are more specimens of his works in Britain than of any other foreign painter. Holland had likewise its painters, whose chief merit was the faithful representation of vulgar nature, and perfect knowledge of the mechanism of the art, the power of colours, and the effect of light and shade.

11. With the art of painting, sculpture and architecture were like-

wise revived in the same age, and brought almost to perfection. The universal genius of Michael Angelo shone equally conspicuous in all the three departments. His statue of Bacchus was judged by Raphael to be the work of Phidias or Praxiteles. The Grecian architecture was first revived by the Florentines in the fourteenth century; and the cathedral of Pisa was constructed partly from the materials of an ancient Greek temple. The art arrived at perfection in the age of Leo X., when the church of St. Peter's at Rome, under the direction of Bramante, San Gallo, Raphael, and Michael Angelo, exhibited the noblest specimen of architecture in the world.

12. The invention of the art of engraving on copper by Tomaso Finiguerra, a goldsmith of Florence, is dated about 1,460. From Italy it travelled into Flanders, where it was first practised by Martin Schoen of Antwerp. His scholar was the celebrated Albert Durer, who engraved excellently both on copper and on wood. Etching on copper by means of aquafortis, which gives more ease than the stroke of the graver, was discovered by Parmeggiano, who executed in that manner his own beautiful designs. No art underwent, in its early stages, so rapid an improvement as that of engraving. In the course of 150 years from its invention it attained nearly to its perfection; for there has been little proportional improvement in the last century, since the days of Audran, Poilly, and Edelinck.

13. The art of engraving in mezzotinto is of much later date than the ordinary mode of engraving on copper. It was the invention of prince Rupert about 1,650. It is characterized by a softness equal to that of the pencil, and a happy blending of light and shade, and is therefore peculiarly adapted to portrait, where those requisites are most essential.

14. The age of Leo X. was likewise an era of very high literary splendour; but of the distinguished writers of that period we shall afterwards treat, in a connected view of the progress of literature and the sciences during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

SECTION XLIV.

OF THE OTTOMAN POWER IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

1. From the period of the taking of Constantinople, in the middle of the fifteenth century, the Turks were a great and conquering people. In the sixteenth century, Selim I., after he had subdued Syria and Mesopotamia, undertook the conquest of Egypt, then governed by the Mamelukes, a race of Circassians, who had seized the country in 1,250, and put an end to the government of the Arabian princes, the posterity of Saladin. The conquest of Egypt by Selim made little change in the form of its government. It professes to own the sovereignty of the Turks, but is in reality still governed by the Mameluke beys.

2. Solyman (the magnificent) son of Selim, was, like his predecessors, a great conqueror. The island of Rhodes, possessed by the knights of St. John, was a darling object of his ambition. These knights had expelled the Saracens from the island in 1,310. Solyman attacked Rhodes with 140,000 men and 400 ships. The Rhodian knights, aided by the English, Italians, and Spaniards, made a noble defence; but, after a siege of many months, were forced to capitulate and evacuate the island, in 1,522. Since that time Rhodes

has been the property of the Turks. The commercial laws of the ancient Rhodians were adopted by the Romans, and at this day are the foundation of the maritime jurisprudence of all the nations of Europe.

3. Solyman subdued the greater part of Hungary, Moldavia, and Walachia; and took from the Persians Georgia and Bagdat. His son Selim II. took Cyprus from the Venetians in 1,571. They applied to the pope for aid, who, together with Philip II. of Spain, entered into a triple alliance against the Ottoman power. An armament of 250 ships of war, commanded by Philip's natural brother, Don John of Austria, was opposed to 250 Turkish gallies in the gulf of Lepanto, near Corinth; and the Turks were defeated, with the loss of 150 ships and 15,000 men, 1,571. This great victory was soon after followed by the taking of Tunis by the same commander.

4. But these successes were of little consequence. The Ottoman power continued extremely formidable. Under Amurath II. the Turks made encroachments on Hungary, and subdued a part of Persia. Mahomet III., though a barbarian in his private character, supported the dignity of the empire, and extended its dominions. The Ottoman power declined from his time, and yielded to that of the Persians under Schah-Abbas the great, who wrested from the Turks a large part of their late-acquired dominions.

SECTION XLV.

STATE OF PERSIA AND OTHER ASIATIC KINGDOMS IN THE SIXTEENTH AND SEVENTEENTH CENTURIES.

1. The great empire of Persia, in the end of the fifteenth century, underwent a revolution on account of religion. Haydar or Sophi, a religious enthusiast, established a new sect of Mahometans, which held Ali to be the successor of Mahomet instead of Omar, and abolished the pilgrimages to Mecca. The Persians eagerly embraced a doctrine which distinguished them from their enemies the Turks; and Ismael, the son of Sophi, following the example of Mahomet, enforced his opinions by the sword. He subdued all Persia and Armenia, and left this vast empire to his descendants.

2. Schah-Abbas, surnamed the great, was the great-grandson of Ismael Sophi. He ruled his empire with despotic sway, but with most able policy. He regained the provinces which had been taken by the Turks, and drove the Portuguese from their settlement of Ormuz. He rebuilt the fallen cities of Persia, and contributed greatly to the introduction of arts and civilization. His son Schah-Sesi reigned weakly and unfortunately. In his time Schah-Gean, the great Mogul, deprived Persia of Candahar; and the Turks took Bagdat in 1,638. From that period the Persian monarchy gradually declined. Its sovereigns became the most despicable slaves to their own ministers; and a revolution in the beginning of the eighteenth century put an end to the dynasty of the Sophis, and gave the throne to the Afghan princes, a race of Tartars.

3 The government of Persia is almost as despotic as that of Turkey. The sovereign draws a small yearly tax from every subject, and receives likewise stated gifts on particular occasions. The crown is hereditary, with the exclusion of females; but the sons of

a daughter succeed in their course. There is no other rank in Persia than that annexed to office, which is held during the monarch's pleasure. The national religion is the Mahometan, as reformed by Sophi. The sect of the Guebres preserve the religion of Zoroaster, as contained in the Zendavesta and Sadder, and keep alive the sacred fire. (Part I., Sect. XI.)

4. The poetry of the Persians displays great fancy and luxuriance of imagery. The epic poet Firdousi is said to rival the various merits of Homer and Ariosto; and the writings of Sadi and Hafez, both in prose and poetry, are admired by all who are conversant in oriental literature.

5. *Tartary.* From this vast tract of country sprang those conquerors who produced all the great revolutions in Asia. Tartary is no more than a vast desert, inhabited by wandering tribes, who follow the life of the ancient Scythians. The Turks, a race of Tartars, overwhelmed the empire of the caliphs. Mahmoud, a Tartar, conquered Persia and great part of India in the tenth century. The Tartar Gengiscan subdued India, China, Persia, and Asiatic Russia, in the beginning of the thirteenth century. Batoucan, one of his sons, ravaged to the frontiers of Germany. Tamerlane, the scourge of the Turks, and the conqueror of a great part of Asia, was of the race of Gengiscan. Babar, great-grandson of Tamerlane, subdued all the country between Samarcand and Agra in the empire of the Mogul. The descendants of those conquerors reign in India, Persia, and China.

6. *Thibet.* The southern part of Tartary, called Thibet, exhibits the phenomenon of a kingdom governed by a human being called the Dalai Lama, or Great Lama, whose divinity is acknowledged not only by his own subjects, but over China and a part of India. This supposed god is a young man, whom the priests educate and train to his function, and in whose name they in reality govern the kingdom.

SECTION XLVI.

HISTORY OF INDIA.

1. The earliest accounts of this great tract of civilized country are those of Herodotus, who lived about a century before Alexander the great; and it is remarkable that the character given of the people by that early writer, corresponds perfectly with that of the modern Hindoos. He had probably taken his accounts from Scylax of Carianadria, whom Darius Hystaspes had sent to explore the country. But till the age of Alexander, the Greeks had no particular knowledge of that extraordinary people. Alexander penetrated into the Panjab, where his troops refusing to proceed, he embarked on the Hydaspas, which runs into the Indus, and thence pursued his course for above 1,000 miles to the ocean. The narrative given by Arrian of this expedition was taken from the verbal accounts of Alexander's officers; and its particulars agree yet more remarkably than those of Herodotus with the modern manners of the Hindoos.

2. India was visited by Seleucus, to whose share it fell in the partition of Alexander's empire; and Antiochus the great, 200 years

afterward, made a short expedition thither. It is probable too that some small intercourse subsisted between the Greek empire of Bactriana and India; but, till the fifteenth century, no European power thought of forming any establishment in that country. From the age of Alexander down to the period of the Portuguese discoveries there had constantly been some commercial intercourse between Europe and India, both by sea and across the desert.

3. The Mahometans, as early as A. D. 1,000, had begun to establish an empire in India. Mahmoud, a Tartar, conquered a great part of the country, and established his capital at Ghazna, near the sources of the Indus, extirpating, wherever he came, the Hindoo religion, and establishing the Mahometan in its stead. Mohammed, Gori, in 1,194, penetrated to Benares; and one of his successors fixed the seat of his empire at Delhy, which has continued to be the capital of the Mogul princes. The sovereignty founded by Mahmoud was overwhelmed in 1,222 by Gengiscan, as was his empire in the following century by Tamerlane, whose posterity are at this day on the throne of the Mogul empire.

4. The Mogul empire was, even in the beginning of the 18th century, the most powerful and flourishing of all the Asiatic monarchies. The emperor Aurengzebe, the son of Schah-Gean though a monster of cruelty, and a most despotic tyrant, enjoyed a life prolonged to a hundred years, crowned with uninterrupted prosperity and success. He extended his empire over the whole peninsula of India within the Ganges.

5. The dominion of the Mogul is not absolute ovér all the countries which compose his empire. Tamerlane allowed the petty princes, rajahs or nabobs, to retain their territories, of which their descendants are at this day in possession. They pay a tribute to the great Mogul, as an acknowledgment of his sovereignty, and observe the treaties agreed to by their ancestors; but they are in other respects independent princes.

6. Bengal became a part of the Mogul's empire by conquest in the end of the sixteenth century, and was commonly governed by a son of the great Mogul, who had under him several inferior nabobs, the former princes of the country. Such was its condition when the British East India company, between 1,751 and 1,760, conquered and obtained possession of that kingdom, together with Bahar and part of Orissa, a large, populous, and most flourishing country, containing above ten millions of inhabitants, and producing an immense revenue; and these territories have since that period received a considerable addition. The East India company has the benefit of the whole commerce of the Mogul empire, with Arabia, Persia, and Thibet, as well as with the kingdoms of Azem, Aracan, Pegu, Siam, Malacca, China, and many of the oriental islands.

The fixed establishments of the British in the country of Indostan have afforded opportunity of obtaining much instructive knowledge relative to the ancient state of that country, of which we shall give a short sketch in the following section.

SECTION XLVII.

ANCIENT STATE OF INDIA. MANNERS, LAWS, ARTS, SCIENCES, AND RELIGION OF THE HINDOOS.

1. The remains of the ancient knowledge of the Hindoos have been preserved by a hereditary priesthood, in the Sanscrit language, long since extinct, and only known to a few of the Bramins. The zeal of some learned Europeans has lately opened that source of information, whence we derive the most interesting particulars of this extraordinary people, perhaps the first cultivators of the sciences, and the instructers of all the nations of antiquity. We shall briefly notice their singular division into casts, their civil policy, laws, progress in the arts and sciences, and religion.

2. The whole body of the people was divided into four orders, or casts. The highest cast, that of the Bramins, was devoted to religion and the cultivation of the sciences; to the second belonged the preservation of the state; they were its sovereigns and its magistrates in peace, and its soldiers in war; the third were the husbandmen and merchants; and the fourth the artisans, labourers, and servants. These are inseparable distinctions, and descend from generation to generation. Moreover, the individuals of each class follow invariably the professions of their forefathers. Every man, from his birth, knows the function allotted to him, and fulfils with ease and satisfaction the duty which he cannot avoid. Hence arises that permanence of manners and institutions which so singularly characterizes this ancient nation.

3. This classification is an artificial arrangement, which could have originated only from the mind of a legislator among a polished people, completely obedient to government. It is therefore a proof of the highly civilized state of the Hindoo nation in the most remote periods of antiquity.

4. The civil policy of the Hindoos is another proof of their ancient civilization. At the time of Alexander the great, India was divided into large and powerful kingdoms, governed by sovereigns whose dominion was not absolute, but controlled by the superior authority of the Bramins. A system of feudalism has ever prevailed in India. The rights to land flow from the sovereign, to whom a certain duty is payable by the class of the husbandmen, who transmit their possessions to their children under the same tenure. Strabo and Diodorus remarked three classes of officers among the Indians: one class whose department was the regulation of agriculture, tanks, highways; another which superintended the police of the cities; a third which regulated the military department. The same policy prevails at this day under the Hindoo princes.

5. The jurisprudence of Hindostan is an additional proof of great antiquity and civilization. The Ayen-Akbery, and still more the compilation of Hindoo laws from the ancient Sanscrit records, made by order of Mr. Hastings, contain the jurisprudence of a refined and commercial people, among whom law had been a study and profession

6. Many monuments exist in India of the advanced state of the useful and elegant arts in the remotest periods of antiquity. The ancient pagodas, of vast extent and magnificence, whether cut in the

solid rock, as in Elephanta and Salsette, or in the open air, as at Chilambrum and Seringham; the sumptuous residences of the Bramins; and the ancient hill fortresses, constructed with prodigious strength and solidity, evince a great advancement in the arts. The resort of the most polished nations of antiquity to India for cotton cloths, fine linen, and works in metal and ivory, proves these manufactures to have been superior to all known at that time in Europe.

7. The late translations from the Sanscrit of several ingenious compositions of high antiquity, as the dramatic piece *Sacontala*, the *Hitopadesa*, a series of moral apologues and fables, the *Mahabarat*, an epic poem, composed above 2,000 years before the Christian era, all concur in proof of a similar advancement in literature. We have reason to believe from such works as are of a philosophical nature, that there is scarcely a tenet of the Greek philosophy which has not been antecedently the subject of discussion among the Bramins of India.

8. The numeral ciphers first introduced into Europe by the Arabians were, as those authors confess, borrowed from the Indians. Above a century ago, the French mathematicians evinced, by the evidence of a Siamese manuscript, containing tables for calculating the places of the heavenly bodies, the astonishing advancement made by this ancient people in the science of astronomy. A set of astronomical tables obtained lately from the Bramins by M. Gentil goes back to an era termed *Calyougham*, commencing 3,102 years before the birth of Christ. These tables are used by the modern Bramins, who are quite ignorant of the principles on which they have been constructed. M. Bailly has proved that they are the same as those employed by the moderns, with which the Greeks and Chaldeans were utterly unacquainted.

9. Lastly, from the religious opinions and worship of the Hindoos we must draw the same conclusion as from all the preceding facts. One uniform system of superstition pervades every religion of India, which is supported by the most sagacious policy, and by every thing that can excite the veneration of its votaries. The Bramins, elevated above every class of men, and exclusively acquainted with the mysteries of that religion, which it is held impious for any other class to attempt to penetrate; the implicit reliance on the authority of these Bramins; the ceremonies of their worship, adapted to impress the imagination and to affect the passions; all concurred to fortify this potent superstition, and to give its priests a supreme ascendancy over the minds of the people. But those priests, enlightened as they were, rejected that false theology. Their writings demonstrate that they entertained rational and elevated conceptions with regard to the Supreme Being, and the support of the universe.

10. On the whole, there is a high probability that India was the great school from which the most early polished nations of Europe derived their knowledge of arts, sciences, and literature.

Persons who want more particular information respecting India are referred to Maurice's Indian Antiquities, and Tennant's Indian Recreations.

SECTION XLVIII.

OF CHINA AND JAPAN.

1. As we proceed eastward in the survey of the Asiatic continent, the great empire of China next solicits our attention. In the end of the tenth century, China, Persia, and the greater part of India were ruled by the Tartar descendants of Gengiscan. The Tartar family of Yven, who conquered China, made no change in its laws and system of government, which had been permanent from time immemorial. Of this family there reigned nine successive monarchs, without any attempt by the Chinese to throw off the Tartar yoke. The odious and contemptible character of the last of these sovereigns at length excited a rebellion, which, in 1,357, drove the Tartars from the throne; and the Chinese, for 276 years, obeyed their native princes. The Tartars, taking advantage of an insurrection in one of the provinces, invaded China in 1,641, and made an easy conquest. The emperor shut himself up in his palace, and, after putting to death all his family, finished the scene by hanging himself. The same Tartars occupy the throne of China at this day, and observe the same wise policy of maintaining inviolate the Chinese laws, policy, and manners. Of these we shall give a brief account in the subsequent section.

2. The empire of Japan was discovered by the Portuguese about the middle of the sixteenth century. The open and unsuspicious character of this industrious and polished people led them to encourage the resort of foreigners to their ports; and the Spaniards, after they had obtained the sovereignty of Portugal, carried on a most beneficial trade to the coasts of Japan. The emperor zealously promoted this intercourse, till the insatiable ambition of the Spaniards gave him alarming conviction of its danger. Under the pretence of converting the Japanese from idolatry, a vast number of priests was sent into the country; and one half of the people were speedily set at mortal variance with the other. It now became necessary to prohibit this work of conversion by an imperial edict. However a free trade was allowed till 1,637, when a conspiracy of the Spaniards for dethroning the emperor and seizing the government was discovered. An edict was issued for the expulsion of all the Spaniards and Portuguese, who resisted till they were overpowered by force of arms. Since that period all the European nations have been excluded from the ports of Japan. The Dutch only, who had been the discoverers of the conspiracy of the Spaniards, are allowed the privilege of landing on one of the small islands, for the purposes of trade, after making oath that they are not of the Portuguese religion.

SECTION XLIX

OF THE ANTIQUITY OF THE EMPIRE OF CHINA. STATE OF THE ARTS AND SCIENCES, MANNERS, GOVERNMENT, LAWS.

1. The antiquity of this vast empire, and the state of its government, laws, manners, and attainments in the arts and sciences, have furnished an ample field of controversy. Voltaire, Raynal, and other writers have given to the Chinese empire an immense antiquity, and a character of such high civilization and knowledge of the sciences and arts at a very remote period, as to be utterly irreconcilable to the state and progress of man as described in the books of Moses. On the other hand, it is probable that the desire of invalidating those opinions has induced other writers of ability to go to an opposite extreme; to undervalue this singular people, and to give too little weight to any accounts which we have received either of the duration of their empire, of the economy of their government and police, or of their attainments in the arts and sciences. Amidst this contrariety of sentiments we shall endeavour to form such opinion as appears most consonant to the truth.

2. The panegyrists of the Chinese assert that their empire has subsisted above 4,000 years, without any material alteration in its laws, manners, language, or even fashion of dress; in evidence of which they appeal to a series of eclipses, marking contemporary events, all accurately calculated, for 2,155 years before the birth of Christ. As it is easy to calculate eclipses backwards from the present day to any given period of time, it is thus possible to give to a history, fictitious from beginning to end, its chronology of real eclipses. This proof therefore amounts to nothing, unless it were likewise proved that all those eclipses were actually recorded at the time when they happened; but this neither has been nor can be done; for it is an allowed fact, that there are no regular historical records beyond the third century before the christian era. The present Chinese are utterly ignorant of the motions of the celestial bodies, and cannot calculate eclipses. The series mentioned has therefore in all probability been calculated by some of the Jesuits, to ingratiate themselves with the emperors, and flatter the national vanity. The Jesuits have presided in the tribunal of mathematics for above 200 years.

3. But if the authentic annals of this empire go back even to the third century before Christ, and record at that time a high state of civilization, we must allow that the Chinese are an ancient and early polished people, and that they have possessed a singular constancy in their government, laws, and manners. Sir William Jones, no bigoted encomiast of this people, allows their great antiquity and early civilization, and, with much apparent probability, traces their origin from the Hindoos. He appeals to the ancient Sanscript records, which mention a migration of certain of the military class termed *Chinas*, from India to the countries east from Bengal. The stationary condition of the arts and sciences in China proves that they have not originated with that people: and many peculiarities of the manners, institutions, and popular religion of the Chinese, have a near affinity to those of the Hindoos.

4. The government of China is that of an absolute monarchy. The patriarchal system pervades the whole, and binds all the members of this vast empire in the strictest subordination. Every father is absolute in his family, and may inflict any punishment short of death upon his children. The mandarin of the district is absolute, with the power of life and death over all its members; but a capital sentence cannot be inflicted without the emperor's approbation. The emperor's power is absolute over all the mandarins, and every subject of the empire. To reconcile the people to this despotic authority, the sovereign alone is entitled to relieve the wants of the poor, and to compensate public calamities, as well as the misfortunes of individuals. He is therefore regarded as the father of his people, and even adored as a benevolent divinity.

5. Another circumstance which conciliates the people to their government is, that all honours in China are conferred according to merit, and that chiefly literary. The civil mandarins, who are the magistrates and judges, are appointed to office according to their measure of knowledge and mental endowments. No office or rank is hereditary, but may be aspired to by the meanest of the people. The penal laws of China are remarkably severe; but their execution may be remitted by the emperor. The judicial tribunals are regulated by a body of written laws of great antiquity, and founded on the basis of universal justice and equity. The emperor's opinion rarely differs from the sentences of those courts. One tribunal judges of the qualifications of the mandarins; another regulates the morals of the people, and the national manners; a third is the tribunal of censors, which reviews the laws, the conduct of the magistrates and judges, and even that of the emperor himself. These tribunals are filled by an equal number of Chinese and Tartars.

6. It has been observed that the sciences have been stationary in this empire for many ages. They are at this day extremely low, though far beyond the attainments of a barbarous people. The language of China seems to oppose the prosecution of speculative researches. It has no regular inflections, and can with difficulty express abstract ideas. We have remarked the ignorance of the Chinese in mathematics and astronomy. Of physics they have no acquaintance beyond the knowledge of apparent facts. They never ascend to principles, nor form theories. Their knowledge of medicine is extremely limited, and is blended with the most contemptible superstition. Of anatomy they know next to nothing; and in surgery they have never ventured to amputate a limb, nor to reduce a fracture.

7. The state of the useful and elegant arts has been equally stationary as that of the sciences. Many ages ago they had attained a certain point of advancement, which they have never exceeded. The Chinese are said to have manufactured glass for 2,000 years; yet at this day it is inferior in transparency to the European, and is not used in their windows. They are reported to have known gunpowder from time immemorial; but they never employed it in artillery or fire-arms till they were taught by the Europeans. They are said to have invented printing in the age of Julius Cæsar, yet they know not the use of moveable types, and print from blocks of wood. When first shown the use of the compass in sailing, they affirmed that they were well acquainted with it, but found no occasion to employ it. The art of painting in China is mere mechanical imitation, without grace, expression, or even accuracy of proportions. Of the

rules of perspective they have not the smallest idea. In sculpture, as in the figures of their idols, the Chinese artists seem to delight in distortion and deformity. Their music is not regulated by any principles of science. They have no semitones, and their instruments are imperfect and untunable. The Chinese architecture has variety, lightness, and sometimes elegance; but has no grandeur, nor symmetrical beauty.

8. In some of the arts the Chinese have attained great excellence. In China agriculture is carried to the highest pitch of improvement. There is not a spot of waste land in the whole empire, nor any land which is not highly cultivated. The emperor himself is the chief of the husbandmen, and annually holds the plough with his own hands. From the high state of agriculture, and the modes of economizing food, is supported the astonishing population of 333 millions, or 260 inhabitants to every square mile of the empire. The gardening of the Chinese, and their admirable embellishment of rural nature, have of late been the object of imitation in Europe, but with far inferior success. The manufacture of porcelain is an original invention of this people; and the Europeans, though excelling them in the form and ornament of the utensils, have never been able to attain the excellence of the material.

9. The morals of the Chinese have furnished a subject both of praise and censure. The books of Confucius are said to contain an admirable system of morality. But the principles of morals have their foundation in human nature, and must, in theory, be every where the same. The moral virtues of a people are not to be estimated from the books of their philosophers. It is probable that the manners of the superior classes are in China, as elsewhere, much influenced by education and example. The morals of the lower classes, are said to be extremely loose, and their practices most dishonest. They are regulated by no principle but selfish interest, and restrained only by the fear of punishment.

10. The religion of the Chinese is different in the different ranks of society. There is no religion of the state. The emperor and the higher mandarins profess the belief of one Supreme Being, *Changti*, whom they worship by prayer and thanksgiving, without any mixture of idolatrous practices. They respect the lama of Thibet as the high-priest or prophet of this religion. A prevalent sect is that of *Tao-sse*, who believe in the power of magic, the agency of spirits, and the divination of future events. A third is the sect of *Fo*, derived from India, whose priests are the Bonzes, and whose fundamental doctrine is, that all things rose out of nothing, and must finally return to nothing; that all animals are first to undergo a series of transmigrations; and that as man's chief happiness is to approach as near as possible to a state of annihilation in this life, absolute idleness is more laudable than occupation of any kind. A variety of hideous idols is worshipped by this sect.

11. The Chinese have their sacred books entitled *Kings;* as the *Yking*, *Chouking*, &c.; which, among some good moral precepts, contain much mystery, childish superstition, and absurdity. These are chiefly resorted to for the divining of future events, which seems the *ultimatum* of research among the Chinese philosophers. The observation of the heavenly bodies is made for that purpose alone. The changes of weather, the performance or omission of certain ceremonies, the occurrence of certain events in particular times and places, are all believed to have their influence on futurity, and are

therefore carefully observed and recorded. The rules by which those omens are interpreted are said to have been prescribed by the great Confucius, the father of the Chinese philosophy, 500 years before the christian era.

12. We conclude, on the whole, that the Chinese are a very remarkable people; that their government, laws, policy, and knowledge of the arts and sciences, exhibit unquestionable proofs of great antiquity and early civilization; that the extraordinary measure of duration assigned to their empire by some modern writers rests on no solid proofs; that their government, laws, manners, arts, and scientific attainments, are not deserving of that superlative praise which has been bestowed on them.

SECTION L.

M. BAILLY'S THEORY OF THE ORIGIN OF THE SCIENCES AMONG THE NATIONS OF INDIA.

1. The striking resemblance in many points of character between the Chinese and the ancient Egyptians, has led to the conjecture, either that they were originally the same people, one being a colony of the other, or have had, at some remote period, such intercourse, either by conquest or by commerce, as to occasion a reciprocal communication of manners and the knowledge of arts and sciences. M. de Mairan has remarked the following points of similarity. The Egyptians and the Chinese had the same permanence of manners, and abhorrence of innovations; they were alike remarkable for the respect entertained by children to their parents; they were equally averse to war; they had the same general superficial knowledge of the arts and sciences, without the ability to make great attainments; they both, in the most ancient times, used hieroglyphics; the Egyptians had a solemn festival, called the *feast of the lights;* the Chinese have the *feast of the lanterns;* the features of the Chinese are said to resemble the ancient Egyptian statues; certain characters engraven on an Egyptian bust of Isis were found to belong to the Chinese language.

2. M. Bailly has taken a wider range of observation, and from a review of the manners, customs, opinions, and attainments of the Indians, Persians, Chinese, Chaldeans, and Egyptians, has discovered many circumstances of similarity between all those nations, equally remarkable as the foregoing. He has thence formed the singular hypothesis, that the knowledge common to all those nations has been derived from the same original source, a most ancient and highly cultivated people of Asia, of which every trace is now extinct. If we find, says he, in the scattered huts of peasants, fragments interspersed of sculptured columns, we conclude for certain that they are not the work of the rude peasants who reared those huts, but that they are the remains of a magnificent building, the work of able architects, though we discover no other traces of the existence of that building, and cannot ascertain its precise situation.

3. The sciences and arts of the Chinese have been stationary for 2,000 years. The people seem never to have availed themselves of the lights of their ancestors. They are like the inhabitants of a country recently discovered by a polished people, who have taught

them some of their arts, and left their instruments among them. The knowledge which they possess, seems to have been imported, and not of original growth, for it has never been progressive.

4. The Chaldeans were an enlightened people at the commencement of the Babylonish empire, 2,000 years before the Christian era. They were astronomers, and understood the revolutions of the celestial bodies. The Chaldeans were probably the remains of this ancient people. The Bramins of India believe in the unity of God, and the immortality of the soul; but with these sublime tenets they intermix childish absurdities. They derived the former from wise instructers; the latter were the fruit of their own ignorance. The Sanscrit, a copious and elegant language, and the vehicle of all the Indian knowledge and philosophy, has been a dead tongue for thousands of years, and is intelligible only to a few of the Bramins. It was probably the language of that great ancient people.

5. The coincidence or similarity of customs concurs to establish the belief of an original nation. The custom of libation was common to the Tartars and Chinese, and to the Greeks and Romans. All the Asiatic nations had festivals of the nature of the Roman *saturnalia*. The tradition of the deluge is diffused among all those nations. The tradition of the giants attacking heaven is equally general. The doctrine of the metempsychosis was common to the Egyptians, Greeks, Indians, Persians, Tartarians, and Chinese. The religion of all those nations is founded on the profound but erroneous doctrine of the two principles, a universal soul pervading all nature, and inert matter on which it acts. A conformity in a true doctrine is no proof of mutual communication or concert; but it is ingeniously remarked, that a conformity in a false doctrine comes very near to such a proof.

6. The Egyptians, Chaldeans, Indians, Persians, and Chinese, all placed their temples fronting the east, to receive the first rays of the sun. Hence the worship of the sun has been the religion of the ancient people from which these are descended. All these nations had a cycle, or period of sixty years, for regulating their chronology. They all divided the circle into 360 degrees; the zodiac into twelve signs; and the week into seven days. The Chinese, Indians, and Egyptians designed the seven days of the week by the names of the seven planets ranged in the same order. The long measures of the ancient nations had all one common origin.

7. These singular coincidences, says M. Bailly, can be explained only upon three suppositions: 1, that there was a free communication between all those ancient nations; 2, that those circumstances of coincidence are so founded in human nature, that the most unconnected nations could not fail to hit upon them; or, 3, that they have been all derived from a common source. He rejects the two former suppositions, as contrary, in his opinion, to fact, and adopts the last.

8. The precise situation of this great ancient people, M. Bailly does not pretend to fix with certainty; but offers probable reasons for conjecturing that it was about the 49th or 50th degree of north latitude, in the southern regions of Siberia. Many of the European and Asiatic nations attribute their origin to that quarter, which thence appears to have been extremely populous. Nitre, a production from animal substances, is more abundant there than in any other region. The observations of the rising of the stars, collected by Ptolemy, must have been made in a climate where the longest day

was sixteen hours, which corresponds to the latitude of 50 degrees. No European nation in that latitude understood astronomy in those early periods. The veneration of the Indians and Chinese for the Lama of Thibet is a proof that the religion of those nations originated in that quarter.

9. But does that region exhibit any traces of having been ever inhabited by a polished people? Here the theory of M. Bailly seems to be least supported by proof. He observes, that ancient mines have been discovered in those parts of Siberia, which have been wrought to great extent in a period beyond all record or tradition; that ancient sepulchres have been found, in which there were ornaments of gold of skilful workmanship; but the facts specified are so few as to warrant no positive inference.

10. This theory is an amusing specimen of the author's ingenuity; but it has not the force to draw our assent to his conclusions. We have noticed it as specifying many curious facts relative to the manners and attainments of the ancient nations, and as furnishing strong evidence of the common origin of mankind. The nations above mentioned, though many of them remote from one another, were all connected, as links of a chain, by proximity; whence it is easy to conceive that knowledge should diverge from a centre to a very distant circumference. M. Bailly has given no reasonable ground for fixing that centre in the position which he has assigned to it.

SECTION LI.

REIGN OF PHILIP II. OF SPAIN. REVOLUTION OF THE NETHERLANDS AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF HOLLAND.

1. After a short survey of the Asiatic kingdoms, we return to the history of Europe in the sixteenth century.

In the time of Philip II., the successor of Charles V., the balance of power in Europe was sustained by Spain, France, England, and Germany, all at this time highly flourishing and respectable, either from the talents of their sovereigns, or their internal strength. Elizabeth, Henry II., and Philip II., were all acute and able politicians; though the policy of Philip partook more of selfish craft, and had less of the manly and heroic, than that of either of his rival monarchs. Philip was at this time sovereign of Spain, the Two Sicilies, Milan, and the Netherlands. He had likewise, for a few years, the power of England at his command, by his marriage with Mary, the elder sister and predecessor of Elizabeth.

2. Pope Paul IV., jealous of the power of Philip, formed an alliance with Henry II. of France to deprive the Spaniards of Milan and the Two Sicilies. Philip, with the aid of the English, defeated the French at St. Quintin in Picardy, and hoped from this signal victory, to force the allies into a peace; but the duke of Guise recovered the spirits of the French, by the taking of Calais from the English, which they had now possessed for two hundred years. Another great victory, however, obtained by Philip near Gravelines, brought on the treaty of Catteau-Cambresis in 1,559, by which the French surrendered to Spain no less than eighty-nine fortified towns in the Low Countries and in Italy.

3. Philip, now at ease from foreign disturbances, began to be disquieted on the score of religion. An intolerant bigot by nature, he resolved to extirpate every species of heresy from his dominions. The Netherlands, an assemblage of separate states, were all subject to Philip, under various titles; and he had conferred the government of Holland, Zealand, Friesland, and Utrecht, on William, prince of Orange, a count of the German empire. The Lutheran and Calvinistic opinions had made great progress in those quarters; and Philip, determining to repress them, established the inquisition with plenary powers, created new bishops, and prepared to abrogate the ancient laws, and give the provinces a new political institution. These innovations created alarm and tumult; and the duke of Alva was sent into Flanders to enforce implicit submission.

4. The inquisition began its bloody work, and many of the principal nobility of the provinces were its victims. The minds of the people were completely alienated, and a chief was only wanting to give union to their measures. The prince of Orange, who was under sentence of the inquisition, found no difficulty to raise an army; and having easily reduced some of the most important garrisons, he was proclaimed stadtholder of Holland and Zealand in 1,570. Eighteen thousand persons perished by the hands of the executioner in the course of the duke of Alva's government, which was of five years' duration. His place was supplied by Requesens, a man of humanity, but bound to obey his inhuman master, who, on the death of Requesens, sent his own brother don John of Austria, to endeavour to regain the revolted states; but the attempt was fruitless. The whole seventeen provinces had suffered alike from the tyranny of their sovereign; but particular jealousies prevented a general union, and only seven of them asserted their independence, by a solemn treaty formed at Utrecht, on the 23d of January, 1,579; by which it was agreed that they should defend their liberties as one united republic; that they should jointly determine in matters of peace and war, establish a general legislative authority, and maintain a liberty of conscience in matters of religion. These seven united provinces are, Guelderland, Holland, Zealand, Friesland, Utrecht, Overyssel, and Groningen. William prince of Orange was declared their chief magistrate, general, and admiral, by the title of *Stadtholder*.

5. Philip vented his indignation by a proscription of the prince of Orange, offering 25,000 crowns for his head; and he compassed his revenge; for this illustrious man was cut off by an assassin in 1,584. His son Maurice was elected stadtholder in his room, and sustained his important office with great courage and ability. With a slender aid from Elizabeth of England, who delighted to traverse the plans of Philip, this infant commonwealth accomplished and secured its independence, which it maintained till its recent subjugation.

6. The other ten provinces, whose discontents were expressed only by murmur and complaint, were soothed by a new charter from Philip confirming their privileges; while at the same time he took every possible measure to prevent any attempt on their part to throw off the yoke.

SECTION LII.

OF THE CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED PROVINCES.

1. The treaty of confederation of the Seven United Provinces, framed in 1,579, and solemnly renewed in 1,583, is declared to be, by its nature, indissoluble. Each province thereby preserved its own laws, magistrates, sovereignty, and independence. They form, however, one body politic, having renounced the right of making separate alliances or treaties, and established a general council, with power of assembling the states, and regulating the common affairs of the republic. The assembly of the states-general was originally held only twice a year, but became afterwards a perpetual council.

2. In all matters which regard not the general interest of the nation, each of the states or provinces is in itself a republic, governed by its own laws and magistrates, and possessing a supreme legislative authority. The deputies from each of the towns form the council of the province, in which is vested its separate government; and these deputies are regulated by the instructions of their constituents. The votes of the majority of deputies decide in the provincial council in all matters which regard not the general interest of the nation.

3. The great council of the states-general always met in assembly at the Hague, and is composed of the deputies from the seven provinces, of which Holland sends three, Zealand and Utrecht two, and the others one; each deputy being regulated by the council of his province. A majority of voices is here decisive, unless in the great questions of peace, war, and alliance, in which unanimity is requisite. The disadvantage of this constitution is the delay and difficulty in the execution of public measures. All the towns and all the nobles of a province must deliberate and instruct their deputy, before the states-general can take the matter under consideration. This great defect is partly corrected by the power and influence of the stadtholder.

4. The stadtholder is commander in chief of the sea and land forces, and disposes of all the military employments. He presides over all the courts of justice, and has the power of pardoning crimes. He appoints the magistrates of the towns, from a list made by themselves; receives and names ambassadors, and is charged with the execution of the laws. He is supreme arbiter in all differences between the provinces, cities, or other members of the state.

5. William, the first stadtholder, did not abuse these high powers; nor did his successors, Maurice and Henry-Frederick. But under William II. the states became jealous of an exorbitant authority in their chief magistrate, and on his death the office was for some time abolished. In that interval the republic was almost annihilated by the arms of Lewis XIV.; and, sensible of their error, they restored the office of stadtholder in the person of William III., who retrieved the fortunes and honour of his country. In gratitude for his services, the dignity was made hereditary in his family, a solecism in the government of a republic. On the death of William without issue, the office was once more abolished for twenty years, when it was again restored, declared hereditary in the family of Orange, and descendible even to the issue of a daughter. The only restrictions are, that

the succeeding prince shall be of the protestant religion, and neither king nor elector of the German empire.

SECTION LIII.

REIGN ON PHILIP II. CONTINUED.

1. The loss of the Netherlands was in some degree compensated to Philip II. by the acquisition of the kingdom of Portugal. Muley Mahomet, king of Fez and Morocco, dethroned by his uncle Muley Moluc, solicited the aid of don Sebastian king of Portugal to regain his throne. Sebastian landed with an army in Africa, but was defeated by the Moors and slain; and the contending Moorish princes perished in the same engagement. Sebastian was succeeded by his grand-uncle don Henry, who died after a reign of two years. The competitors for the crown were don Antonio prior of Crato, and Philip II., paternal and maternal uncles of the last sovereign. Philip defeated his rival in a decisive engagement at sea, and, without further opposition, took possession of the throne of Portugal, 1,580.

2. Elizabeth of England had warmly espoused the cause of the revolted Netherlands, and her admiral sir Francis Drake had taken some of the Spanish settlements in America. To avenge these injuries, the invincible armada, of 150 ships of war, 27,000 men, and 3,000 pieces of cannon, was equipped by Philip for the invasion of England. The English fleet, of 108 ships, attacked them in the night, and burnt and destroyed a great part of the squadron. A storm, which drove them on the rocks and sands of Zealand, completed their discomfiture, and only 50 shattered vessels, with 6,000 men returned to Spain, 1,588.

3. The restless spirit of Philip II. was engaged at the same time in the reduction of the Netherlands, the project for the invasion of England, and the dismembering of the kingdom of France. The last scheme was as ineffectual as the two former. It was defeated at once by the conversion of Henry IV. to the catholic religion. The policy of Philip had nothing in it great or generous. His restless ambition was fitted to embroil Europe; but he had not the judgment to turn the distresses which he occasioned to his own advantage. In his own kingdoms, as in his domestic life, he was a gloomy and inhuman tyrant. Yet, from the variety and magnitude of his designs, the power by which they were supported, and the splendour of his dominion, the character of Spain was high and respectable in the scale of the nations of Europe.

SECTION LIV.

STATE OF FRANCE IN THE END OF THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY; UNDER HENRY II., FRANCIS II., CHARLES IX., HENRY III., AND HENRY IV.

1. The reformed religion had made the greater progress in France from the impolitic persecution which it sustained from Henry II., the son and successor of Francis I., who, though he aided the protestants of Germany in resisting the despotism of Charles V., showed no mercy to their brethren in his own kingdom.

2. On the death of Henry II. the conspiracy of Amboise was planned by the prince of Conde, for the destruction of the duke of Guise, who ruled the kingdom under Francis II., and to whose intolerance and cruelty the protestants attributed all their calamities. Guise owed his ascendancy chiefly to the marriage of his niece, Mary queen of Scots with the young monarch; and the detection of this conspiracy, the massacre of its principal leaders, and the barbarous punishment of all who partook in it, while they confirmed his power, served only to increase the rancour of the contending parties.

3. Francis II. died after a reign of one year, 1,560, and was succeeded by his brother Charles IX., a boy of ten years of age. The queen-mother, Catharine de Medicis, who had no other principle but the love of power, was equally jealous of the influence of the Condes and the Guises. An ecclesiastical assembly, held by her desire at Poissy, gave toleration to the protestants to exercise their worship through all France, without the walls of the towns. The zeal or the imprudence of the duke of Guise infringed this ordinance, and both parties flew to arms. The admiral Coligni commanded the troops of the protestants, who were aided by 10,000 Germans from the Palatinate. Philip of Spain, to increase the disorders, sent an army to the aid of the catholics.

4. The horrors of civil war were aggravated by murders and assassinations. The duke of Guise was the victim of the frantic zeal of an enthusiast. After many desperate engagements, with various success, a treacherous peace was agreed to by the catholics; and Coligni, with the chiefs of the protestant party, were invited to court, and received by the queen-mother and her son with the most extraordinary marks of favour: among the rest Henry of Navarre, to whom the young monarch had given his sister in marriage. Such were the preparatives to the infernal massacre of St. Bartholomew. On the night of the 23d of August, 1,572, at the ringing of the matin bell, the catholics made a general massacre of all the protestants throughout the kingdom of France. Charles IX., a monster of cruelty assisted in the murder of his own subjects.

5. Amid those horrors Henry duke of Anjou, brother of Charles IX., was elected king of Poland; but had scarcely taken possession of his throne, when he was called to that of France by the death of its execrable sovereign, 1,574. The weakness of the new monarch, Henry III., was unfit to compose the disorders of the kingdom. Equally bigoted and profligate, he became the scorn of his subjects, and the dupe of the contending factions.

6. The protestant party was now supported by the prince of Conde and young Henry of Navarre, descended from Robert of Bourbon, a younger son of Lewis IX. The duke of Alencon, the king's brother, had likewise joined their party. The catholics, to accumulate their strength, formed a bond of union, termed the *league*, nominally for defence of the state and its religion, but in reality for usurping all the powers of government, and suppressing the protestant faith. Of this dangerous association Henry III., with the weakest policy, declared himself the head, and thus the avowed enemy of one half of his subjects. He saw his error when too late, and, dreading the designs of the duke of Guise, and his brother the cardinal of Lorraine, whose authority had superseded his own, he basely rid himself of his fears by procuring their assassination. This vicious and contemptible tyrant, after a reign of fifteen years, was assassinated

by Jaques Clement, a jacobin monk, from the frenzy of fanaticism, 1,589.

7. The next heir of the crown was Henry of Navarre, who had been educated a protestant by his mother, the daughter of Henry d'Albert king of Navarre. At the age of sixteen he had been declared head of the party of the Huguenots; his uncle the prince of Conde and the admiral Coligni acting as his lieutenants. His first military enterprises were unsuccessful. Invited to Paris, at the peace of 1,572, to marry the sister of Charles IX., he narrowly escaped from the massacre of St. Bartholomew, but remained three years a prisoner. On the death of Charles he again took the field against the army of the league, which he defeated in the battle of Coutras, 1,587, and still more signally in that of Arques, 1,589. After the death of Henry III., he won the celebrated battle of Ivry; and, being acknowledged sovereign of France by all but the party of the league, than in possession of Paris, he laid siege to the city, which must have capitulated if Philip II. had not sent succours. Religion was the sole cause of the disunion of France, and the only obstacle to the acknowledgment of Henry's title by the greater part of his subjects. By the earnest persuasion of Rosni (duke of Sully), a protestant, Henry was prevailed on to declare himself a catholic. He abjured at St. Denis, and was crowned king at Chartres, 1,594. He soon after took possession of Paris; but it took him several years, both of war and negotiation, before he gained the whole of his kingdom, exhausted as it was, and ruined by civil discord.

8. The subsequent life of this excellent prince was devoted to the reparation of those misfortunes. After forcing Philip II. to conclude the advantageous peace of Vervins, 1,598, his whole attention was bestowed on the improvement of his kingdom, by reforming its laws, regulating its finances, encouraging agriculture and manufactures, enlarging and embellishing the cities, and finally by successfully reconciling the partisans of the contending religions. In all his beneficial schemes, he found an able assistant in his minister the duke of Sully, who has beautifully depicted the life and character of his master. In his memoirs we see not only the great designs, but the private virtues, the engaging and amiable manners of this illustrious man, who, while he was the arbiter of the contending powers of Europe, was the indulgent father of a happy people.

9. The period of the splendour and happiness of France was of short duration. Henry IV., worthy to be immortal, was assassinated at the age of fifty-seven, May 4, 1,610, by Ravaillac, an insane fanatic. At the time of his death, he meditated the great project of a perpetual peace between the states of Europe, a design highly characteristic of the benevolent mind of its author. But the weaknesses of mankind, and the impossibility of reasoning with nations as with wise individuals, must certainly have rendered this design impracticable at that period.

SECTION LV.

HISTORY OF ENGLAND AND OF SCOTLAND IN THE REIGNS OF ELIZABETH AND MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

1. Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII., by Anna Bullen, succeeded to the throne on the death of her sister Mary, 1,558; and England

attained a high degree of splendour, under the rule of this great and politic princess, whose talents enabled her to pursue the true interests of her people, while her vigorous and intrepid mind led her to take an important part in maintaining the balance of power in Europe. While she encouraged at home every useful art and manufacture, she colonized a great part of North America, supported the infant republic of Holland against its tyrannical enemy, humbled the pride of Spain in the defeat of its invincible armada, and assisted Henry IV. in the recovery of his kingdom. It was her fortune to have the aid of most able ministers, and her merit to place her confidence in their counsels.

2. If Elizabeth had been equally endowed with the virtues of the heart as with the powers of the mind, she would have shone the most illustrious character in the annals of modern Europe. Her conduct to her cousin Mary queen of Scots has fixed an indelible stain on her character. Mary, the daughter of James V., and great grand-daughter of Henry VII., educated in France, and married, when very young, to the dauphin, afterwards Francis II., had imprudently assumed the arms and title of queen of England, by the persuasion of her maternal uncles the Guises. The pretence was the illegitimacy of Elizabeth, declared by Henry VIII., on his divorce from Anna Bullen. This false step laid the foundation of all the miseries of the queen of Scots.

3. The reformation was at this time going forward in Scotland with the most ardent zeal. The earls of Argyle, Morton, Glencairn, and others, its chief promoters, had, by their own authority, suppressed the worship of the mass over a great part of the kingdom. The catholic bishops, by an ill-judged persecution of the reformers, greatly increased the number of their proselytes. They began to muster their strength, and, headed by John Knox, a disciple of Calvin, a virtuous man, but of the most furious and intemperate zeal, threw down the altars and images, expelled the priests, and demolished the churches and monasteries. The protestants were now acting in arms, and in open defiance of government; and the queen-mother, Mary of Guise, attempted, by the aid of French troops, to reduce her subjects to submission. They applied for aid to Elizabeth the protestant queen of England, who sent an army and a fleet to their assistance. The death of the queen-mother was followed by a capitulation, by which it was agreed that the French should evacuate Scotland, and that Mary should renounce all pretension to the crown of England. The protestant religion, under presbyterian forms, was now established in the room of the catholic.

5. In this situation of Scotland, Mary, at the age of eighteen, on the death of her mother, and of her husband Francis II., returned to her hereditary kingdom; having fortunately escaped an English fleet, which Elizabeth had despatched to take her prisoner on her passage. Her misfortunes began from that hour. Her protestant subjects regarded their catholic queen with abhorrence, and looked up to her enemy Elizabeth as their support and defender. That artful princess had secured to her interest the very men on whom the unsuspecting Mary placed her utmost confidence, her bastard brother the earl of Murray, the earl of Morton, and secretary Lethington. The views of Murray aimed at nothing less than his sister's crown, and the obstacles which opposed his criminal ambition served only to render his attempts more daring and flagitious.

5. The marriage of Mary with her cousin lord Darnley, son of the

earl of Lennox, who stood in the same relation to Elizabeth, was not agreeable to that princess. Encouraged by Elizabeth's ministers, Randolph and Cecil, Murray formed a conspiracy to seize and imprison Mary, to put to death her husband, and usurp the government; and on the detection of his designs, attempted to support them by open rebellion. Defeated, exiled, pardoned, and loaded with benefits by his injured sovereign, he persevered in the same atrocious purposes, till he at length accomplished them.

6. The spouse of Mary had incurred her resentment by his vices and follies. Taking advantage of the weakness of his mind, Murray, Morton, and Lethington, had rendered him jealous of the partiality of Mary for her foreign secretary, the aged Rizzio, and engaged him in the barbarous act of murdering this ill-fated wretch at the feet of the queen, to whose garments he clung for protection. The purpose of this shocking outrage was to procure the abortion of Mary, then big with child, and possibly her death; or, if she should survive, to alienate completely her affections from her husband, and thus to render her suspected of the design which they had projected of cutting him off by assassination. In the latter purpose they succeeded. The house which Darnley inhabited was blown up by gunpowder: his body was found strangled near the place, and a report immediately prevailed, that Mary had been accessory to his murder.

7. A most imprudent step, to which she was conducted by the same band of traitors, gave countenance to this suspicion. At the earnest recommendation of Morton and some of her chief nobility, she married the earl of Bothwell, a man openly stigmatized as one of the murderers of her husband. He had, it is true, been absolved on trial for that crime, and had by force made himself master of her person. The plans of Murray and his associates, successful to the utmost of their wishes, were now ripe for consummation. On the pretext of the queen's guilt of murder and adultery, she was confined by Murray in the castle of Lochleven, and there compelled to resign her crown into the hands of her unnatural brother, who was to govern the kingdom as regent during the minority of her infant son, now proclaimed king by the title of James VI., 1,567. Bothwell escaped beyond sea, and died in Denmark.

8. A great part of the nation reprobated those infamous proceedings. Mary escaped from her confinement, and at the head of an army gave battle to the rebels at Langside; but, being defeated, she fled for shelter to the north of England. Elizabeth, who had secretly encouraged all the machinations of her enemies, had now gained a great object of her ambition; she had in her hands a hated rival, and, by her support of Murray and his party, the absolute command of the kingdom of Scotland. Yet policy required some show of friendship and humanity to the queen of Scots, who claimed, as a suppliant, her protection and aid. She professed her desire to do her justice, but first required that she should clear herself of the crimes alleged against her. To this Mary agreed, with the intrepidity of conscious innocence. In a conference held for that purpose, Murray openly stood forth as the accuser of his sister and queen, appealing to certain letters said to have been written by her to Bothwell, plainly intimating her guilt. Copies of these letters were produced. Mary demanded the originals, boldly declaring them to be the forgeries of her enemies; but they were never produced. She retorted on Murray and Morton the charge of Darnley's murder;

and the conference was broken off at the command of the queen of England, who detained Mary in close imprisonment.

9. The ungenerous policy of Elizabeth was condemned by her own subjects. The duke of Norfolk, the first of her nobility, and, though a protestant, favoured by the catholic party in England, secretly projected to marry the queen of Scots. The discovery of his views having given alarm to Elizabeth, brought that ill-fated nobleman to the block, and hastened the doom of the unfortunate Mary. Worn out with the miseries of her confinement, she privately solicited the aid of foreign princes for her deliverance. Her cause was espoused by all the catholics of England; and some of the most intemperate of these had formed a plot to deliver her from captivity, and to place her on the throne, by the murder of Elizabeth. This dangerous conspiracy was discovered, and its authors deservedly suffered death. The schemes of Mary for her own deliverance were held presumptive of her acquiescence in the whole of the plot. Though an independent sovereign, she was brought to trial before a foreign tribunal which had already decreed her fate; and, being condemned to suffer death, she was beheaded at Fotheringay castle, 1,587, in the forty-fifth year of her age, and the nineteenth of her captivity in England. Previously to this event, Murray had fallen the victim of the private revenge of a gentleman whom he had injured; Lethington poisoned himself in prison, to escape the sentence of his enemies; and Morton, some time regent of the kingdom, was afterwards tried and suffered death for his concern in the murder of Darnley.

10. We have mentioned the formidable preparations of Philip II. for the invasion of England, and their disastrous issue in the total destruction of the invincible armada. The English, in their turn, made descents on the Spanish coasts; and the glory of the nation was nobly sustained by those great admirals, Raleigh, Howard, Drake, Cavendish, and Hawkins. The earl of Essex distinguished himself in those expeditions, and won the favour of Elizabeth, both by his prowess and personal accomplishments. The death of Leicester, her former favourite, and of her minister Burleigh left Essex unrivalled in her affections, and of chief authority in the direction of her councils. Haughty, and impatient of control, he disgusted the nobles; and his failure in quelling a rebellion in Ireland gave them ground to undermine him in the favour of his sovereign. In the madness of inordinate ambition, he proposed to possess himself of the person of the queen, and compel her to remove his enemies, and acquiesce in all his measures. This treasonable enterprise brought him to the scaffold, 1,600.

11. From that time Elizabeth fell into profound melancholy, and soon after died in the seventieth year of her age, 1,603, having named for her successor James VI. of Scotland. Her talents were great, and the firmness of her mind was unequalled; but her private character was tarnished by cruelty, hypocrisy, and an insatiable desire of admiration. Her maxims of government were despotic, and she had little regard for the liberties of her people, or the privileges of her parliaments, to whom she never allowed the liberty of disputing her commands. The actual government of England in those days was little different from an absolute monarchy.

SECTION LVI.

HISTORY OF GREAT BRITAIN IN THE REIGNS OF JAMES I. AND CHARLES I.

1. James VI. of Scotland succeeded by hereditary right to the throne of England, thus uniting the two crowns; a prince of considerable learning and talents, but of little vigour of mind or political energy. He became unpopular from his notions of an uncontrollable prerogative, to which unwisely proclaiming his title, he provoked his subjects to question it. The current of public opinion was now strongly turned to an extension of the rights of the subject, and to a retrenchment of the powers of the crown; and during this reign the seeds were sown of that spirit of resistance on the part of the people, which was destined in the next to overturn the constitution.

2. Domestic events were such as chiefly distinguished the reign of James I. A conspiracy was discovered in 1,603 for subverting the government, and placing the king's cousin, Arabella Stuart, on the throne, in which the lords Cobham and Grey, and Sir Walter Raleigh were principally concerned. The two former were pardoned, and Raleigh was condemned, but reprieved. On the ground of his infringement of the peace with Spain, by unwarrantably attacking one of her American settlements, he was beheaded on his former sentence, after an interval of fifteen years.

3. Another conspiracy followed, of a still more dangerous nature, the gunpowder treason; a plot of the catholics to destroy at one blow the king and the whole body of the parliament, 1,604. It was discovered from a circumstance of private friendship, on the very eve of its accomplishment; and the principal conspirators suffered capital punishment. The public indignation now raged against the catholics; and the humanity of James, which sought to mitigate this fury, was as ungenerously as absurdly construed into a favour which he entertained for their religious principles.

4. It was a peculiar weakness of the king to attach himself to undeserving favourites. Such was Carre earl of Somerset, who had no other recommendation but a handsome person, and who, after several years' exercise of all the insolence of power, fell into disgrace, on conviction of his concern in an infamous murder. His place was supplied by Villiers, afterwards duke of Buckingham, a man devoid of every talent of a minister and odious to all ranks of the state. He planned a journey of Charles prince of Wales into Spain to court the infanta, and by his folly and insolence frustrated the treaty on the brink of its conclusion.

5. Elizabeth, the daughter of James, was married to the protestant elector Palatine, who was dispossessed of his electorate by the emperor Ferdinand II., for imprudently accepting the crown of Bohemia, till then an appanage of the empire. James was urged by parliament to a war in defence of his son-in-law, which touched the nation both as a point of honour and as the cause of the protestant interest. He sent a feeble armament, which was of no service, the only military enterprise of his reign. His favourite project was a complete union of the kingdoms of England and Scotland; a measure which, however beneficial, the mutual prejudices of the two nations were as

yet too violent to bear. As a preparatory step, the episcopal hierarchy was introduced into Scotland; but this served only as the incentive of future commotions. James I. died in 1625, in the 59th year of his age, and the 22d of his reign over England.

6. On an impartial estimate of the character of the succeeding monarch, Charles I., it may be allowed, that this unfortunate prince would have reigned with high popularity, if the nation in his reign had entertained the same opinions of the regal prerogative, of the powers of parliament, and of the liberty of the subject, which had prevailed for the two preceding centuries. But it was his lot to mount the throne at that critical period when the public opinion had undergone an entire revolution on those topics; and, with many excellent endowments both of head and heart, he wanted that political prudence which should have taught him to yield to the necessity of the times.

7. Charles was offended with his first parliament, on their refusal of adequate supplies for the war in support of his brother-in-law, the elector Palatine. Engaged to his allies, the king, dissolving the parliament, issued warrants for borrowing money of the subject. A new parliament was found equally uncomplying, and evinced its jealousy of the king by the impeachment of his minister, Buckingham. Charles avenged the insult by imprisoning two members of the house of commons. A dissension thus begun was continually aggravated by new causes of offence. The levying of money from the subject was enforced by billeting soldiers on those who refused to lend to the crown; and some were even imprisoned on that account. A war was undertaken against France, by Buckingham's instigation, a sufficient cause of its unpopularity; and it ended in a fruitless attempt on Rochelle. The king again dissolved his parliament, 1,626.

8. A new parliament exhibited a spirit of determined reformation. A *Petition of Right* was passed by both houses, which declared the illegality of raising money without their sanction, or of enforcing loans from the subject, annulled all taxes imposed without the consent of parliament, and abolished the exercise of the martial law; and Charles was obliged, with much reluctance, to give his assent to this great retrenchment of prerogatives, sanctioned by the usage of the most popular of his predecessors.

9. The taxes of tonnage and poundage had usually been continued from one reign to another. On this ground the king conceived that he was warranted to levy them without a new grant; and a member of the house of commons was imprisoned on refusal to pay them. This arbitrary measure excited an outrageous ferment in that assembly, and the consequence was a new dissolution of the parliament, 1,629.

10. It was now a measure of necessity to make peace with France and Spain. The king persevered in levying the tonnage, poundage, and ship-money; and high fines were imposed for various offences, without trial, by authority of the star-chamber. The legality of the tax of ship-money was disputed by John Hampden, who was condemned by the court of exchequer, contrary, as was generally thought, to justice and the laws of the realm.

11. Those discontents were increased by religious enthusiasm. Charles, by the advice of Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, had relaxed the penalties against catholics, and countenanced some innovations in the ceremonials of church worship, preludes, as they were termed, to the popish idolatries. He had likewise imprudently at-

tempted to introduce the liturgy of the church of England among the Scots. These measures excited in Scotland very general discontent, and produced the most violent commotion. A bond, termed the *National Covenant*, containing an oath of resistance to all religious innovations, was subscribed in Scotland by all ranks and conditions; and in a general assembly at Glasgow the episcopal hierarchy was solemnly abolished, 1,638. To maintain this violent procedure the Scots reformers took up arms, and, after seizing and fortifying the most important places of strength in the kingdom, boldly marched into the heart of England.

12. It was now absolutely necessary to assemble a parliament, and the king at length saw that the torrent was irresistible, and resolved, though too late, to yield to it. A bill passed for abolishing the tonnage and poundage without consent of parliament, and received the royal assent. Monopolies of every kind were abolished. A parliament was agreed to be summoned every third year. Unsatisfied with these concessions, the commons impeached the earl of Strafford, the king's first minister, of high treason, together with Laud, archbishop of Canterbury, who were charged, as the chief counsellors of the crown, with a design of subverting the laws and constitution of the realm. The fate of Strafford, whose trial by his peers would have terminated in his acquittal, was secured by a bill of attainder, to which the king was, with the greatest reluctance, forced to give his assent. The commons seized that moment of anguish to obtain his consent to a decisive measure, a bill which rendered the parliament perpetual, by declaring that it should not be dissolved nor adjourned except by its own decree, 1,641. Strafford and Laud were both beheaded.

13. This last measure of the commons evinced a determined purpose to overturn the constitution. Their proceedings hitherto had the show of justice, and most of them might be vindicated on the principles of true patriotism. But from this period their conduct was treason to their country and its government. The last bill destroyed the equal balance of the constitution of England, and every subsequent measure was a step towards its annihilation.

14. The Irish catholics took advantage of those disorders, and, with the purpose of assuming the entire command of that kingdom, and shaking off its dependence on England, attempted, in one day to massacre all the protestants in Ireland. To extinguish this horrible rebellion Charles consigned to the parliament the charge of the war, which they interpreted into a transference to them of the whole military powers of the crown. Under this authority a great force was levied, and supplied with arms from the royal magazines.

15. The bishops having complained that their lives were in danger from the populace, and having protested against the proceedings of the lords in their absence, were impeached of treason by the commons, and committed to the Tower. The patience of Charles was exhausted. He caused five of the commons to be impeached, and went in person to the house to seize them; a breach of the privilege of parliament, for which he found it necessary to atone by a humiliating message.

16. A new bill of the commons, naming the commanders of all the fortified places, who should be responsible to parliament alone, was understood to be a declaration of war. The next step was to assume the whole legislative power, by declaring it a breach of privilege to dispute the law of the land promulged by the lords and commons.

But the lords were merely a name, being entirely under the control of the commons.

17. The sword was now to decide the contest. The royal cause was supported by a great proportion of the landed interest, all the friends of the established church, and all the catholics in the kingdom. On the side of the parliament were the city of London and most of the greater towns, with all the dissenters and sectaries. The first campaign was favourable to the royalists, who defeated the parliamentary forces at Worcester and Edgehill, but lost the battle of Newbury.

18. The parliament now entered into a strict confederacy with the Scots, both in the articles of politics and religion; and the *Solemn League and Covenant*, a new bond more specific in its objects than the former, and more treasonable in its purpose, was framed at Edinburgh, for the purification of both churches, the reformation of both kingdoms, the maintenance of the privileges of king and parliament, and bringing to justice all malignants. In consequence of this confederacy, 20,000 Scots took the field to co-operate with the forces of the parliament.

19. At this time Oliver Cromwell commanded a regiment of horse under Fairfax, general of the parliament; but in reality directed all the measures of the army. In Scotland the royal cause was gallantly sustained by the marquis of Montrose; but all was lost in England by the defeat at Naseby, in 1,645. The troops of the royalists being entirely dispersed, the king threw himself into the hands of the Scots, who basely delivered him up to the commissioners of parliament, from whom he was taken by Cromwell's orders, and conducted to the army, which was now master of the kingdom. Cromwell entering London assumed an absolute control over the parliament, and imprisoned all who disputed his authority. Charles, escaping from his confinement, fled to the isle of Wight; but was there detained a prisoner in Carisbrook castle.

20. The parliament, suffering under this military usurpation, were now sincerely desirous of terminating a miserable anarchy by a treaty with the king, and, after a long negotiation, all terms were finally adjusted. Charles agreed to resign to parliament the military power, the disposal of all the offices of state, and the right of creating peers without the consent of parliament: he agreed to abolish the episcopal hierarchy, and to establish the presbyterian discipline. These concessions the parliament accepted by a majority of suffrages, and declared them to be a sufficient basis for the settlement of the kingdom. Cromwell instantly surrounded the house of commons, and, excluding all but his own partisans (about sixty in number), a second vote was passed, rescinding the former, and declaring it treason in a king to levy war against his parliament. A court of justice was then appointed to try the king for this act of treason. The house of lords, having unanimously rejected this decree, were immediately voted, by this junto of independents, to be a useless branch of the constitution.

21. Charles was brought to trial, and, refusing to acknowledge the authority of his judges, was condemned to suffer death. He was beheaded on the 30th of January, 1,649. The arbitrary proceedings of this monarch in the beginning of his reign were certainly sufficient to justify that resistance on the part of the people which at length produced its effect, in confining the regal authority within its just bounds, and securing the rational liberties of the subject. But

from the period when this end was attained, resistance ceased to be lawful. Its further operations were criminal in the extreme. The subsequent usurpations of the commons can no more be justified on any constitutional principle, than the murder of the king can be defended on the score of legality, justice, or humanity.

SECTION LVII.

THE COMMONWEALTH OF ENGLAND.

1. The parliament of Scotland had taken no part in these latter scenes, and had formally protested against the trial of the king. On his death they proclaimed Charles II. their sovereign, but on the express condition of his signing the covenant, and ratifying their confession of faith. Ireland recognised him without any conditions. The heroic marquis of Montrose landed in the north of Scotland with a few foreign troops, and attempted to reduce the party of the covenanters, and to establish the legal authority of the king, independent of the servile restrictions with which they had fettered it. Being attacked by a much superior force, he was defeated, and betrayed into the power of his enemies, who put him to death by the hands of the executioner, 1,650; displaying in the circumstances of his punishment all the insolence of cruelty which distinguishes revenge in the meanest of souls. Charles retired to Scotland, and was obliged, however reluctantly, to acquiesce in all the terms that were imposed on him.

2. Cromwell, with 16,000 men, marched into Scotland against the royalist covenanters, whom he defeated in the battle of Dunbar. He then followed the royal army, which retreated into England, and destroyed it in the decisive battle of Worcester, September 3, 1,651. Charles fled in disguise through the western and southern counties, till he found an opportunity of escaping to France; and Cromwell returned in triumph to London.

3. The republican parliament formed and executed great designs. A war with Holland was most ably maintained on both sides by three great naval commanders, Blake, the British admiral, and Van Tromp and de Ruyter, the Dutch admirals; but the advantage was greatly in favour of the English, who took above 1,600 Dutch ships. The parliament, elated by these successes, justly conceived that, while the nation was thus powerful at sea, the army was an unnecessary burden, and determined to reduce it. To prevent this measure, Cromwell framed a remonstrance of the army, demanding the election of a new parliament. This remonstrance being disregarded, he entered the house of commons, which he had surrounded with his troops, and declaring the parliament dissolved by his authority, forcibly turned the members out of doors. The republic of England, which had subsisted four years and three months, was thus annihilated in one moment, April 20, 1,653.

4. It was necessary, however, that there should be the appearance of a parliament. A few mean persons, of fanatical character, were chosen by Cromwell's partisans, from the different counties of England, with five from Scotland, and six from Ireland, to hold their function for fifteeen months. This assembly, termed *Barebone's parliament*, from its leading member, a leather-seller, became the scorn of the public, and was dissolved, by its own vote, after five months.

5. The government was now vested in the council of officers, who nominated Oliver Cromwell lord protector of the three kingdoms, invested him with the power of making peace, war, and alliance, and authorized a standing army of 30,000 men to be kept up for the support of government. His administration was despotic, vigorous, and spirited. He maintained the honour of the nation in the war with the Dutch, compelling them to yield the honour of the flag, and to compensate to the India company all its losses. He was successful likewise in his negotiations with France and Spain. But in his domestic government he was traversed by his parliaments, whom it cost him a continual struggle, and even violence, to keep in order. One parliament, properly prepared, voted him the regal title, which, by the council of his best friends, he was forced, most unwillingly, to refuse. In recompense of this self-denial, the parliament confirmed his title of protector, with a fixed revenue, and decreed his right of appointing a successor. He was king in all but the name.

6. By consent of parliament Cromwell appointed a house of lords; but all the ancient peers declined the proffered honour. He was forced to choose peers from the commons; and thus he lost the majority in the lower house. His temper soured with disappointment, a prey to chagrin, and in continual fear of assassination, he fell at length into a mortal disease, and died in the fifty-ninth year of his age, September 3, 1,658.

7. Richard Cromwell, son of Oliver, succeeded to the protectorate by his father's appointment. He was a man of weak understanding and facile temper, utterly unfit for his hazardous situation, which accordingly he maintained only for a few months, resigning his office on the 22d of April, 1,659. His brother Henry, viceroy of Ireland, immediately followed his example. The family of the Cromwells, which the talents of one man had elevated above the sovereigns of their country, returned to its original obscurity.

8. The remains of that nominal parliament which had put the king to death, termed, in derision, the *rump*, was now dissolved by the council of officers. Of these every aspiring individual had his own separate views of ambition. Intrigue, cabal, and anarchy, were universal; and the nation, looking forward with horror to a series of calamities, began earnestly to desire the restitution of its ancient government. George Monk, commander of the army in Scotland, judged those symptoms favourable for restoring the exiled monarch to the throne of his ancestors. Marching his army into England, he declared his resolution to bring about the election of a free parliament, which all men knew to be synonymous with the restoration of the king. It was of course violently opposed by the republican party, who even attempted to excite a new civil war; but they were forced at length to acquiesce in the measure. A free parliament was assembled, and a message was presented from Charles, offering a full indemnity, complete liberty of conscience, and payment of all arrears to the army. The message was received with transports of joy, and Charles II. was proclaimed king on the 29th day of May, 1,660.

SECTION LVIII.

THE REIGNS OF CHARLES II. AND JAMES II.

1. The nation, without imposing any terms on their new sovereign, trusted implicitly to his good dispositions. Charles was humane and complacent, but indolent, luxurious, and prodigal; and therefore was neither able to support the national honour abroad, nor to command obedience and respect to his domestic government. The sale of Dunkirk was a measure offensive to the pride of the nation. A war with Holland, supported at a vast expense, and maintained in many desperate but indecisive engagements, was attended finally with no material benefit. By the treaty of Breda, concluded in 1,667, New York was secured to the English, the isle of Polerone to the Dutch, and Acadia in North America to the French.

2. The sale of Dunkirk, and the unsuccessful issue of the war, attributed to the counsel of the earl of Clarendon, procured the disgrace and banishment of that illustrious man, 1,667. The peace was scarcely concluded with Holland, when England joined with her and Sweden in a triple alliance, to oppose the progress of the arms of Lewis XIV. in the Low Countries; and that object being attained by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1,668, the French monarch gained the English over to his interest in a new war against the Dutch, which brought their republic to the brink of destruction.

3. The domestic administration of Charles was embroiled from various causes, originating in the personal character and dispositions of the sovereign. He trusted to profligate and worthless counsellors. His arbitrary notions of government, and the partiality which he showed to the catholics, gave perpetual alarm and uneasiness to a great proportion of his subjects. Complaints resounded from every quarter; and the parliament required a test-oath, abjuring popery, from all persons in public employment. On refusal to take this oath, the king's brother, James duke of York, was deprived of his office of high admiral.

4. Titus Oates, a worthless impostor, pretended to have discovered a plot of the catholics for assassinating the king, burning London, massacring the protestants, and placing the duke of York on the throne. Another villain, named Bedloe, joined his evidence to that of Oates; and on their perjured testimony, afterward fully exposed, a few miserable priests suffered death. A new test was imposed, which excluded all papists from both houses of parliament. The treasurer Danby was impeached for advising the last peace with France, though it was proved that he had acted by his sovereign's orders; and a bill passed the house of commons, excluding the duke of York from the succession to the crown. A more important bill for the general liberty, the act of *habeas corpus* was the work of the same session of parliament. (Sect. LIX., § 14.)

5. The distinguishing epithets of *whig* and *tory* were now first known; the former, the opposers of the crown, against the latter, its partisans; and each party, as in all factions, carried its principles to an extreme. The whigs, predominant in the next parliament, raged with fury against the catholics, and insisted on the king's assent to the bill for the exclusion of his brother. His only expedient was to dissolve the parliament, but he found their successors equally vio-

lent. After various fruitless attempts to conciliate their favour to his measures, a dissolution of this parliament ensued, the last which Charles assembled.

6. But the great cause of dissatisfaction remained. The duke of York was at the bottom of all the measures of government. A conspiracy was formed by Shaftesbury, Russel, Sydney, and the duke of Monmouth, natural son of the king, on the pretence of vindicating the national liberties. It was discovered by one of the associates, and Russel and Sydney suffered capital punishment. The detection of this conspiracy strengthened the authority of the sovereign. The duke of York was restored to his office of high admiral, and tacitly acknowledged as the successor to the crown. Charles II. died on the 6th of February, 1,685, in the 55th year of his age, and the 25th of his reign.

7. The duke of York succeeded to the throne by the title of James II. His reign was short and inglorious. He was the instrument of his own misfortunes, and ran headlong to destruction. The catholics at this time were not the hundredth part of the nation, yet James was weak enough to make the desperate attempt of substituting the popish faith in room of the protestant. Discarding the nobility from his councils, he was directed solely by Romish priests. In the very outset of his reign he expressed his contempt of the authority of parliament, and a firm purpose to exercise an unlimited despotism.

8. The duke of Monmouth, having excited a new rebellion, was defeated, made prisoner, and beheaded; and the most inhuman rigour was exercised in the punishment of all his partisans. The parliament was in general submissive to the king's will, which for a while met with no opposition nor control. A declaration was published, establishing full liberty of conscience in matters of religion; and several bishops, who refused to publish it in their dioceses, were committed to prison. A catholic president was appointed to one of the colleges at Oxford. An ambassador was sent to the pope, and a papal nuncio received in London. The catholics openly boasted that theirs would soon be the religion of the state.

6. James had three children; Mary, the wife of the stadtholder William prince of Orange; Anne, married to prince George of Denmark; and James, an infant. The stadtholder had considered his right to the crown of England as certain before the birth of this infant, and, after that event, projected still to gain it by arms or intrigue; the infatuation of the king and the general discontent of the people giving him the most flattering invitation. James was informed of those views of his son-in-law, but would give them no credit, till actually apprized of his landing with an army, November 15th, 1,688.

10. The principal nobility and officers immediately joined the standard of the prince of Orange; and James was at once abandoned by his people, ministers, favourites, and his own children. Leaving London in disguise, he was discovered and brought back by the populace; but the prince of Orange wisely favoured his escape, and he found means a few days after, to convey himself to France.

11. The throne being declared vacant, it was proposed in a convention-parliament, that the crown should be settled on the princess Mary and her issue, her husband governing as regent, whom failing, on the princess Anne. The stadtholder declining the office of regent, it was finally resolved to confer the crown on the prince and prin-

cess of Orange, the former to have the sole administration of the government.

12. To this settlement was added a declaration fixing the rights of the subject and the royal prerogative. Of this the most important articles are the following. The king cannot suspend the laws, nor their execution; he cannot levy money without consent of parliament; the subjects have right to petition the crown; a standing army cannot be kept up in time of peace but by consent of parliament; elections and parliamentary debate must be free, and parliaments must be frequently assembled, &c. Such was the final settlement of the British government at the great era of the revolution. At this period, when the constitution became fixed and determined, we finish the sketch of the history of our own country.

SECTION LIX.

ON THE BRITISH CONSTITUTION.

1. The rudiments of the constitution of England may be traced as far back as the Norman conquest. William distributed a great proportion of the lands among his Norman followers, subjecting these, as well as the Anglo-Saxons who retained their property to the feudal tenures, and thus extinguishing at once the ancient liberties of the people. England was divided into 60,215 military fiefs, all held of the crown, under the obligation of the vassal's taking arms for his sovereign whenever required. In the continental kingdoms of Europe, as in France, the feudal system arose by slow degrees; nor was there of consequence the same union of the fabric as in England. The feudal lords were independent of one another, ever at variance from their mutual pretensions, and often owning but a very slender allegiance to the crown. Their vassals suffered from oppression, and often struggled for their freedom; but those efforts being partial produced no consequence favourable to the liberty of the nation. In England all were oppressed by the enormous weight of the crown; it was a common grievance, and produced at times a violent effort for the general liberties of the people.

2. The forest-laws imposed by the conqueror (Sect. XV., § 2. 11.) were a grievance felt by the whole nation, as rendering every man's property precarious, and subject to the arbitrary encroachments of the crown. It was no wonder that the barons and their vassals should cordially unite to rid themselves of so intolerable a hardship. Henry I. found it necessary to conciliate his subjects, by mitigating the most rigorous of the feudal laws. A greater advance was made under Henry II., by the institution of the trial by jury. But John imprudently resisting this natural progress toward a rational freedom, was soon compelled into those important concessions, the *Charta de Foresta* and *Magna Charta*. From that time the constitution of England was that of a limited monarchy, whatever we may judge of the actual government, which was often most arbitrary and despotical.

3. The next memorable era in the progress of the English constitution was the reign of that weak prince Henry III., when the parliament received a new form, by the admission of the representatives of the people, the deputies of the counties and boroughs. (Sect. XXII., § 2.) His successor Edward I. acknowledged their authority in obtaining all his subsidies, and ratified a new law, which declared,

that no tax should be levied without the consent of lords and commons. The *Magna Charta* was confirmed no less than eleven times in the course of this reign.

4. Thus the constitution continued advancing till its progress was suspended by the civil wars of York and Lancaster. The rights of both prince and people seemed then to be entirely forgotten; and the race of Tudor found no resistance from parliament to their vigorous and despotic sway. The talents of Elizabeth, and the high character which her government sustained with foreign powers, extinguished all domestic disquiets, while the predominant feeling was the maintenance of the power and dignity of the crown.

5. But under the succeeding prince, when his power and dignity were abased by his own weakness, the nation began to awake from its lethargy; and that spirit of opposition, which in this reign confined itself to complaints, in the next broke forth with alarming violence. Charles I., endowed with superior energy of character, acted, as he conceived, on a principle of duty, which obliged him to maintain the prerogative of his predecessors, and to transmit it unimpaired to his posterity; but he was imprudent in exerting with rigour an authority which he wanted ultimate resources to support. He was compelled to sign the *Petition of Rights*, a grant more favourable to liberty than *Magna Charta*. The true patriots were satisfied with this concession, which conferred the most ample constitutional freedom. But the popular leaders made patriotism the cloak of insatiable ambition; and advanced in their demands with every new compliance. The last appeal was made to the sword, and the contest ended in the destruction of the constitution.

6. The despotism which succeeded, and the fluctuation of power from the long parliament to the protector, and finally to the leaders of a standing army, afforded demonstrative evidence how vain was the project of a republic, under which the demagogues had masked their designs. Weary of anarchy, the nation returned with high satisfaction to its former constitution, a limited monarchy.

7. New encroachments under Charles II. produced new limitations; and the act of *Habeas Corpus* gave the utmost possible security to personal liberty. The violent and frantic invasion of the constitution by James II., banished himself and his posterity from the throne, and produced a new and solemn contract between the king and the people. Regarding, therefore, the revolution as the final settlement of the English constitution, we shall endeavour briefly to delineate the chief features of that great political structure.

8. The constitution of Great Britain may be viewed under two distinct heads, the legislative power, and the executive power; the last comprehending the prerogative of the crown.

The power of legislation belongs to parliament, whose constituent parts are, the king, lords, and commons. The house of lords consists of the temporal peers of England, and of the spiritual, or the two archbishops and twenty-four bishops. To these, since the unions with Scotland and Ireland, are added sixteen delegates from the peerage of the former kingdom, and thirty-two from the latter. The house of commons consists of the deputies or representatives of the counties and principal towns and boroughs of England, and the two universities, amounting in all to 513 members; to whom, since the unions, are added 45 from Scotland and 100 from Ireland. These deputies are chosen by the freeholders who possess a property yielding a certain yearly rent. The chancellor generally pre-

sides in the house of lords; the speaker is president in the house of commons.

9. The king is the most essential component part of parliament, because he alone has the power to convoke, prorogue, and dissolve it. He has likewise a negative on all its acts, which are invalid without his approbation; and each house has a negative on the decrees of the other. It is likewise competent to the king to propose any measure to be laid before the parliament.

10. All questions regarding public affairs and national measures may originate in either house of parliament, except grants of money, which must always take their rise in the house of commons, and cannot be altered, though they may be rejected, by the lords. Any matter must be primarily discussed in that house in which it originates, and, until it is there decided, cannot be received by the other house, unless a conference should be demanded. A bill refused by either house is utterly void; and a bill passed by both houses is void, if refused by the king.

11. The executive power of government is vested in the king. (1.) The first branch of his office is the administration of justice. The judges of all courts of judicature are the king's substitutes. He is the prosecutor of all crimes, and has the power of pardoning and suspending the execution of all sentences. (2.) He is the fountain of all honour, the giver of all titles and dignities, and the disposer of all the offices of state. (3.) He is the superintendant of commerce, and has the power of regulating weights and measures, and of coining money. (4.) He is the head of the church, and names the archbishops and bishops. (5.) He is commander in chief of all the sea and land forces, and can alone equip fleets, levy armies, and appoint all their officers. (6.) He has the power of making war, peace, and alliance, and of sending and receiving ambassadors. (7.) He is above the reach of all courts of justice, and is not responsible to any judicature for his conduct in the administration of government.

12. These high powers of the sovereign, which, at first sight, would seem to render him an absolute monarch, are thus admirably controlled. The king is dependent on parliament for all subsidies, without which he can neither maintain his fleets and armies, nor pay the salaries of officers. The parliament indeed settles a revenue on the king for life, but this is merely sufficient for the maintenance of his household, and for supporting a proper dignity of establishment. As the king's revenue must be renewed by parliament at the beginning of every reign, it is in their power to withhold it till all abuses shall be remedied. At those periods therefore the constitution may be brought back to its first principles, and all encroachments of the prerogative may be restrained.

13 The king can never reign without a parliament. It must by law be assembled once in three years, on a notice of forty days before its meeting. Though the king is the head of the church, yet he cannot alter the established religion, nor frame ecclesiastical regulations. These must be made by the assembly of the clergy. The king cannot interfere in the ordinary administration of justice, nor refuse his consent to the prosecution of crimes. He may pardon offences, but cannot exempt the offender from pecuniary compensation to the party injured. He cannot alter the standard of money, either in weight or alloy. He cannot raise an army without the consent of parliament; and though a moderate standing force is kept up

with their consent. yet the funds for its payment require an annual renewal by parliament. Though the sovereign is not amenable to any judicature, yet his ministers are responsible for all the measures of government, and are impeachable by the commons at the bar of the house of lords, for every species of misconduct or misdemeanour.

The freedom of parliamentary discussion is secured, because no member can be questioned for any opinions or words, except in that house of parliament in which they were uttered.

14. The personal security and the rights of the subject are further guarded by these three peculiarities of the British constitution, the *habeas corpus*, trial by juries, and the liberty of the press. By the act of *habeas corpus*, every prisoner must be brought before a judge, the cause of his detainer certified, and the judge is authorized and bound to discharge him, if the cause of his imprisonment be insufficient or illegal. The violation of this statute is punishable by the highest penalties. The *habeas corpus* may be suspended in times of danger to the state, as during the existence of a conspiracy or rebellion. Though this act does not extend to Scotland, yet the subjects of that part of the united kingdoms are equally secured by their own laws. (Statute 1,701, c. 6.)

15. All crimes must be tried by a jury of twelve men in England and Ireland, and fifteen in Scotland. The prisoner has a right of challenging or objecting to the jurors; and (except in Scotland), without showing any cause, he may challenge twenty successively in ordinary cases, and thirty-five in cases of treason. The jury are judges both of the law and the fact; nor has the opinion of the court any weight in their decision, but such as they choose to give it.

16. The liberty of the press is a guardian of the constitution, because it is competent for any individual to convey to the public his opinion of the whole conduct of government, and the merits of its conductors; to canvass every counsel of state, and to examine every public measure; thus forcibly restraining all ministers and magistrates within the limits of their duty. It is further the guardian of injured innocence, and the redresser of all wrongs that evade the cognizance of law. Yet this most valuable right, if unrestrained, would be the source of the greatest mischief. If it were allowable with impunity to assail the established government, to convulse society, to disseminate atheism, to injure the reputation, or to endanger the life and property, of individuals, by false accusations, there would be an end of all liberty and civil happiness. The liberty of the press consists in this, that there is no examination of writings previous to the printing and publishing of them; but, after publication, such writings as offend in any of the above particulars are punishable by law, on trial of the offence by jury. Thus the public is properly constituted the judge and censor of all writings addressed to itself.

17. Such are briefly the outlines of the admirable fabric of the British constitution. *Esto perpetua!* (*may it exist for ever!*)

SECTION LX.

OF THE PUBLIC REVENUE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

1. The property belonging to the crown of Great Britain, which was anciently very great, and fully adequate to the maintenance of government, consisted of domain-lands. the first fruits and tenths of

church-benefices, the rents of vacant bishoprics and abbeys, the profits of military tenures, fines imposed in courts of justice, forfeitures, &c. From alienations made by the sovereigns, and retrenchments of their prerogative, the property of the crown is now become so inconsiderable, that the king may be regarded as entirely dependent on the people for the support of his dignity, and the means of carrying on the business of the state. The public revenue, destined for these two purposes, arises now from the subsidies granted by the people. The supplies are voted by the commons, and the means of furnishing them, by taxes proposed by the chancellor of the exchequer, must receive their sanction.

2. Of these taxes some are annual, as the land tax and malt tax; others are perpetual, as the customs, excise, salt duty, post-office duty, stamps, house and window tax, duties on servants, hackney coaches, pensions, &c. The customs are a tax paid by the merchant on all imported and exported commodities; the excise is an inland imposition, laid sometimes on the consumer, and sometimes on the retail seller.

2. The produce of these taxes is, in the first place, destined to the payment of the interest of the national debt, and afterward to the ordinary support of government.

The national debt arose soon after the revolution, when it was thought hazardous to impose annual taxes equal to the annual expense of government, and more expedient to borrow large sums for the immediate service of the state, raising annually no more than to pay the interest of that debt. The same system has been since persevered in; so that the national debt, which a century ago was 16 millions, is now above 300 millions. To pay the interest of this enormous sum the produce of the taxes (excepting the malt and land tax) are primarily destined; and as somewhat more is annually raised than the interest of the debt and the maintenance of government demand, the surplus constitutes a *sinking fund* for paying off the principal of the debt.

4. The produce of the taxes, originally separate funds, is now thrown into two or three capital funds; one of which is mortgaged by parliament for the maintenance of the king's household and the civil list, namely, the salaries of officers of state, judges, and ambassadors, private expenses, pensions, &c.

5. Notwithstanding the little prospect of an extinction of the national debt, government maintains its credit, and will always find lenders, because the terms granted are beneficial, and the security is transferable; so that a lender can thus always obtain payment of his principal sum, and frequently make gain by the transference. The value of stock rises and falls from various occasional causes, as national prosperity, or the reverse, plenty or scarcity of money, quantity of public debt. On this variation is founded the practice of stock-jobbing, that is, either buying and selling actual property in the public funds, which is a lawful speculation, or gaming and wagering on the price of stock, which is an illicit but common practice. The practice of stock-jobbing, even by the transference of actual property, and far more by gaming on that which is fictitious, is prejudicial to commerce and manufactures, by engrossing a great part of the national wealth, repressing industry, encouraging fraud, and often tempting to the most treacherous and dangerous devices for raising and sinking the funds.

SECTION LXI.

HISTORY OF FRANCE UNDER LEWIS XIII.

1. France, which under Henry IV. had risen from a state of miserable anarchy to high prosperity and splendour, sunk, upon his death, into weakness, faction, and disorder. Mary of Medici, regent in the minority of her son Lewis XIII., a weak woman, and of restless ambition, disgusted the nobility by her partiality for her Italian courtiers. Concini, her first minister, created marshal d'Ancre, became so universally odious, that he was openly murdered in the Louvre, and his body torn to pieces. The queen was removed from Paris, and kept for two years a prisoner at Blois, till relieved by the duke d'Epernon, to serve his own purposes of ambition. The queen's party was at war with that of her son, and the whole kingdom in a state of anarchy.

2. The genius of cardinal Richelieu, who was now brought into power by Mary of Medici, soon effected a wonderful change. He reconciled the mother and her son, soothed the contending factions, and, on the king's assuming the government, directed every public measure to the complete re-establishment of the power and dignity of the monarchy. The party of the Calvinists, alienated by persecution, attempted to throw off their allegiance, and to establish an independent state, of which Rochelle was to be the capital. Richelieu bargained with the Dutch to furnish a fleet for subduing their protestant brethren, and the Dutch now fought as keenly for the catholic religion as they had lately fought for the protestant. The English sent a fleet to the aid of the people of Rochelle, who for a year maintained a most obstinate siege against the French troops, commanded by the cardinal in person. They were at length forced to surrender. Rochelle and all the other protestant cities of France were stripped of their privileges, and their fortifications were destroyed. Thus Calvinism was for ever crushed in France.

3. Lewis XIII., though a weak prince, saw his advantage in entering into all the great designs of his minister. Richelieu influenced the politics of all Europe; and the power of Austria was attacked in Germany, Flanders, Spain, and Italy. His talents were equally displayed in active war, in foreign negotiation, and in his domestic arrangements. Yet at this very time a formidable cabal was undermining him. Mary of Medici was jealous of the man whom she had raised; and the duke of Orleans, the king's brother, sought to supplant him in power. Richelieu, with astonishing intrepidity of mind, repressed this conspiracy. Fortified by the king's authority he seized the marshal de Marillac, one of his most dangerous enemies, at the head of his army; and tried and put him to death by a lawless stretch of power. Orleans, apprehensive of a similar fate, fled from the kingdom; and Mary of Medici, arrested and removed from court, ended her career of ambition in voluntary exile at Brussels. Orleans, supported by the duke de Montmorenci, attempted a rebellion; but their army was defeated, and Montmorenci executed for treason. The queen had taken part with the enemies of the cardinal, who imprisoned her confessor, and seized and examined her papers. Anne of Austria was very near sharing the fate of Mary of Medici.

4. Amidst all this turbulence of foreign war and state cabal, Richelieu cultivated literature, encouraged the sciences, instituted the French academy, and composed pieces for the theatre. The administration of Richelieu, though turbulent from faction and civil war, was, on the whole, extremely glorious for France; and sowed the seeds of its splendour in the succeeding reign of Lewis XIV. The death of this great minister, in 1,642, was soon after followed by the death of his sovereign Lewis XIII., in 1,643.

SECTION LXII.

SPAIN UNDER PHILIP III. AND PHILIP IV. CONSTITUTION OF PORTUGAL AND OF SPAIN.

1. From the death of Philip II. Spain declined in power, and, notwithstanding its great sources of wealth, the national finances were in the utmost disorder. Philip III. was forced to conclude a peace with the Dutch, and to restore to the house of Nassau its confiscated estates. With a weak and despicable policy he expelled from his kingdom all the Moors, who were the most industrious of its inhabitants, 1,610. This depopulation, with that already produced by its American colonies, rendered Spain a lifeless and enervated mass. Philip was entirely under the influence of his minister the duke of Lerma.

2. The national weakness and disorders increased under Philip IV., who, equally spiritless as his father, was implicitly ruled by his minister Olivarez. His reign was a continued series of miscarriages and defeats. The Dutch seized Brazil; the French invaded Artois; Catalonia revolted to France; and Portugal shook off its yoke, and became an independent kingdom.

3. No revolution was ever effected with such ease and celerity as that of Portugal. The people were disgusted with the rigorous and impolitic administration of Olivarez. The duke of Braganza, descended from the ancient kings of Portugal, had the command of the army. Instigated by the ambition of the duchess, and seeing the spirit of the nation favourable to his views, he caused himself to be proclaimed king at Lisbon. The Spanish guards were attacked and routed, and the chief partisans of the government put to death by the populace. All the principal towns followed the example of the capital, and soon after all the foreign settlements. From that era, 1,640, Portugal became an independent sovereignty, after having been sixty years an appanage of the kingdom of Spain.

4. The government of Portugal approaches to an absolute monarchy. The consent of the states or *cortes*, consisting of clergy, nobility, and commons, was formerly necessary to the imposition of taxes, and the settlement of the succession to the crown. But this assembly, convoked only by the royal mandate, has for a long time ceased to meet. The ordinary business of government is transacted by the king and his council of state, which is appointed by himself. The revenue of the crown arises from its domains, including the family estates of Braganza; from the duties on exports and imports, from the taxes, and from a stated proportion of the gold brought from Brazil. The state of the commerce and manufactures of Portugal is extremely low. Though the soil and climate are favourable to cultivation, yet the agriculture of the kingdom is much neglected.

5. The reigns of Philip III. and IV. of Spain, though an era of national humiliation, derived some fame from the state of literature. Dramatic composition, poetry, romance, and even history, were cultivated with great success. But these pursuits are in some sort the amusements of indolence, which was the predominant character of the people. This character may have arisen from two sources. The torrent of wealth poured in from America retarded, in the lower classes, domestic industry and manufactures, while it increased the pride of the gentry, and made them disdain all occupation; and the despotism of the government strongly repressed all enterprise and activity in the people.

6. The constitution of Spain, of which the sovereignty was in ancient times elective, is now that of an absolute monarchy. The crown is hereditary; though at different times, as in 1,619 and 1,713, there has been a new limitation of the succession made by the monarch. The *Cortes*, or states of the kingdom, limited in former times the power of the sovereign; but Charles V. annihilated their authority, by depriving the nobility and clergy of their seat in those assemblies. The remaining members, the deputies of the towns, are entirely under the control of the monarch. The king's council, or *Consejo Real*, is the organ of government; but no department of the state has any constitutional power to regulate the will of the prince.

SECTION LXIII.

AFFAIRS OF GERMANY FROM THE ABDICATION OF CHARLES V. TO THE PEACE OF WESTPHALIA.

1. To preserve the connexion of the affairs of Germany with those of the other kingdoms of Europe, we must return to the period of the abdication of Charles V., when the empire was distracted by the political factions and quarrels of its independent princes, and by the contending sects of the catholics, Lutherans, and Calvinists. Ferdinand vainly attempted to reconcile those factions, and to unite the three religions. Maximilian II. had still less power to effect this object than his predecessor; nor was the state of affairs changed during the succeeding reigns of Rodolphus II. and Matthias. A civil war of thirty years' duration reduced the empire to extremity. Under Ferdinand II., a zealous catholic, the protestant states of Bohemia, which had suffered under the government of Matthias, conferred their crown on the elector Palatine. Ferdinand, in revenge, deprived him both of his crown and electorate.

2. The protestant cause was declining fast in Germany, and every thing seemed to indicate success to the schemes of Ferdinand for its entire annihilation, when it received new vigour from the intervention of Gustavus Adolphus king of Sweden. This great prince defeated the imperial generals, and carried the protestant banners triumphantly through Germany. The emperor was completely humbled, and the elector Palatine was on the eve of restoration to his dominions, when the heroic Gustavus was slain in the battle of Lutzen, 1,632. The war was successfully prosecuted by the Swedish generals, while cardinal Richelieu harassed the house of Austria both in Germany and Spain.

3. In the succeeding reign of Ferdinand III., the protestants of

Germany found the most active support both from the Swedes and the French. The emperor was forced to conclude the peace of Westphalia in 1,648; and these powers dictated the terms. By this celebrated treaty all disputes were settled between the contending princes of the empire, and also between the contending religions; the Swedes were indemnified for the charges of the war, and acquired Pomerania, Stettin, Wismar, and other provinces, and their sovereign the dignity of prince of the empire; its chief possessions were restored to the Palatine family; the king of France was made landgrave of Alsace; and an equal establishment of the three religions was decreed. This salutary peace laid the foundation of the future greatness and prosperity of the German empire.

SECTION LXIV.

FRANCE UNDER LEWIS XIV.

1. On the death of Lewis XIII. in 1,633, his son Lewis XIV. succeeded to the throne in the fifth year of his age. Europe, as we have seen, was in a most turbulent state; and France, under the administration of Richelieu, acted a conspicuous part in exciting those general commotions. The queen mother Anne of Austria, appointed regent by the states, chose for her minister the cardinal Mazarin, an Italian, and from that circumstance odious to the people. The Spaniards, taking advantage of the king's minority and the popular discontents, made an attack on Champagne; but were defeated in a series of engagements by the great Conde. The marshal de Turenne shared with him the palm of glory. The peace of Westphalia composed those differences.

2. At this very time the commotions of the *Fronde* broke out in Paris. The jealousy of Mazarin's power, felt by the nobility, the unpopularity of his measures, the disorder of the finances, and the oppression of new taxes, inflamed the nation; and the intrigues of the coadjutor, afterwards cardinal de Retz, blew the flame into a civil war. The parliament of Paris took part with the rebels, who were headed by the prince of Conti, the dukes of Longueville and Bouillon, and the chief nobility. The queen and the Royal family removed to St. Germain's, and the ministerial party besieged Paris. Turenne, who at first supported them, was gained over by the rebels. The women, who are always concerned in the disturbances of France, acted a conspicuous part in those of the *Fronde*. A short pacification ensued; but the imprudent violence of Mazarin soon renewed the disorders. At length the parliament of Paris assumed the right of banishing this unpopular minister, who retired to the imperial dominions; but his influence continued to regulate the measures of state.

3. A change ensued on the king's coming of age, 1,652. De Retz and Orleans, the chief promoters of the rebellion, were banished, and Mazarin resumed his station as minister. Conde had joined the Spaniards in an attack on the French Netherlands, but was overmatched by Turenne, who revenged this insult by the taking of Dunkirk and several fortified towns under the Spanish government. By convention with Cromwell, Dunkirk had been ceded to the English, and afterwards sold to France by Charles II., as has been related.

4. The war with Spain ended in 1,659, by the peace of the Pyrenees. Many cessions were made on both sides, but France kept Roussillon and part of Artois. It was stipulated that Lewis XIV. should marry the infanta, daughter of Philip IV., but should renounce all right which might thence open to the crown of Spain.

5. The treaty of the Pyrenees gave peace to the south of Europe. The wars in the north between Sweden, Poland, and Denmark, which arose after the abdication of Christina of Sweden, were terminated in the year following by the treaty of Oliva. Christina, a singular, but not a great woman, held the sceptre of Sweden for twenty-two years after the death of her father, Gustavus Adolphus. At length, tired of the cares of government, and affecting a passion for literature and philosophy, she resigned the crown to her cousin, Charles X., in 1,654. Soon after this event Casimer king of Poland was induced by age and sickness to abdicate the throne, after an honourable reign.

6. Mazarin died in 1,661, and Lewis XIV. entered on a vigorous and splendid career. The finances, which from the time of Henry IV. had been in extreme disorder, were admirably regulated by Colbert; and the commerce and manufactures of the kingdom, wisely encouraged by government, were soon in the most flourishing situation. The canal of Languedoc joined the bay of Biscay and the Mediterranean; the principal sea-ports were enlarged and fortified; and the internal police of the kingdom was regularly and strictly enforced. At the same time the arms of France aided England against the Dutch, Germany against the Turks, and Portugal against Spain.

7. On the death of Philip IV., Lewis, pretending that Spain had failed in payment of the dowry of his queen, besieged and took Lisle, with several other fortified towns of Flanders; and in the next campaign made himself master of Franche-Comte. Lewis marched with his armies, but the glory of these conquests was owing to Turenne and Vauban. The triple alliance formed by England, Holland, and Sweden, checked this career, and brought about the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1,668, by which Lewis, though he retained Flanders, restored Franche-Comte, and confirmed the peace of the Pyrenees.

8. The strength and prosperity of the kingdom continued to increase under the able administration of Colbert and Louvois. The civil factions of Holland between the stadtholder and the party of the De Wits, tempted Lewis to undertake the conquest of that country. England, Germany, and Sweden, favoured his views. He overran the provinces of Utrecht, Overyssel, and Guelderland, and advanced almost to the gates of Amsterdam, when the Dutch inundated the country by letting in the sea, and the French were forced to retreat.

9. The confederate powers now became jealous of the ascendancy of France; and the prince of Orange had sufficient influence with England, and both branches of the house of Austria, to obtain their alliance in aid of the republic. The arms of Lewis, however, continued to be successful, and the peace concluded at Nimeguen, in 1,678, was much to the honour of France. Franche-Comte was assured as a part of her dominions, and Spain allowed her right by conquest to a great proportion of the Netherlands.

10. Notwithstanding the peace, Lewis, with the most culpable insincerity, seized Strasburg, and secretly assisted the Hungarians and Turks in their attack on the imperial dominions. Vienna must have fallen into the hands of the Turks, if it had not been seasonably

relieved by the victorious arms of John Sobieski king of Poland. in 1,683.

11. One of the weakest and most impolitic measures of Lewis XIV., was the revocation of the edict of Nantes, granted by Henry IV. for the toleration of the protestants. While their worship was suppressed, their churches demolished, and their ministers banished, the protestant laity were forbidden, under the most rigorous penalties, to quit the kingdom, 1,685. France, however, by this measure, lost above 500,000 of her most industrious and useful subjects; and the name of Lewis XIV. was execrated over a great part of Europe. Not long after this time a similar excess of intolerant bigotry precipitated James II. from the throne of Britain, and forced him to seek an asylum from the monarch of France.

12. William prince of Orange, the inveterate enemy of Lewis, brought about the league of Augsburg, 1,686; and the war was renewed with France by Germany, Spain, England, and Holland. The French arms were still successful. Luxemburg defeated William in the battles of Steenkirk and Nerwinden; Noailles was victorious in Spain; and an army of 100,000 French ravaged the Palatinate, and took many of the most important towns on the Rhine. This was the crises of the glory of Lewis, whose fortunes were to sustain the most mortifying reverse.

13. Those various and most extensive military enterprises, however flattering to the pride of the monarch, had been attended with enormous expense, and no solid advantage to the nation. The finances had fallen into disorder after the death of Colbert, and a peace was absolutely necessary. By the treaty of Ryswick, concluded in 1,697, Lewis restored to Spain all the conquests made in the two last wars, several towns to the emperor, the duchy of Lorraine to its duke, and acknowledged the right of William to the crown of England.

14. The succession of the kingdom of Spain, on the expected death of Charles II., without issue, was now the object of political intrigue. The emperor and the king of France had the only natural right of succession; but William III., of England, from the dread of such an increase of power to either, proposed a treaty of partition of the Spanish dominions, at home and abroad, between the elector of Bavaria, the dauphin, and the emperor's second son. Charles II. chose rather to make his own destination, and appointed by will that the duke of Anjou, second son of the dauphin, should inherit Spain; on whose death without issue, it should devolve on the archduke Charles, youngest son of the emperor.

15. On the death of Charles the duke of Anjou succeeded to the throne of Spain, in virtue of this settlement. The emperor, the king of England, and the Dutch, proposed to separate from his crown the Spanish dominions in Italy. In this enterprise prince Eugene, son of the count de Soissons, commanded the imperial troops, an illustrious renegado from France, of great prowess and military skill.

16. James II. of England died in 1,701 at St. Germain's, and Lewis gave mortal offence to the government of that country by acknowledging the title of his son. On the death of king William in the year following war was declared by England, Holland, and the empire, against France and Spain. Lewis XIV. was now in the decline of life. He had lost the ablest of his ministers and his greatest generals. The finances of the kingdom were exhausted. The armies.

of his enemies were commanded by Eugene and the duke of Marlborough, the ablest generals of the age, and supported by the treasures of the united powers. Savoy and Portugal joined this formidable confederacy, to overwhelm both branches of the house of Bourbon, and place the emperor's son on the throne of Spain.

17. Marlborough took Venlo, Ruremonde, and Liege. Eugene and Marlborough defeated Tallard and Marsin, with the elector of Bavaria, in the signal battle of Blenheim, 1,704. England and Holland attacked Spain by sea and land. Catalonia and Valencia were subdued in six weeks. Gibralter was taken by the English, and has ever since remained in their possession. In the battle of Ramilies, Marlborough defeated Villeroy, and left 20,000 dead on the field. The contest, at first doubtful in Italy, ended alike disastrously for the house of Bourbon. The archduke Charles was in the mean time proclaimed king at Madrid; and Philip V. had serious thoughts of abandoning Spain, and establishing his dominion in America. But the successes of the duke of Berwick, natural son of James II., recovered for a while his desponding spirit, and even prompted his grandfather Lewis to avenge himself on England, by aiding the bold but desperate enterprise of establishing the pretended James on the throne of Britain.

18. But France and Spain were daily losing ground. The pope had acknowledged the title of the archduke Charles; the English seized the Mediterranean islands; and Lewis, fallen from all his proud pretensions, humbly entreated a peace, which was refused, unless on the condition of dethroning his grandson with his own arms. He maintained for a while this unequal contest, and was at length forced to propose terms equally humiliating; the cession of all his conquests in the Netherlands and on the Rhine; the acknowledgment of the archduke's title to the crown of Spain; and a promise to give no aid to his grandson. But these terms were refused, and the inhuman condition still insisted on, that he should assist in dethroning his grandson. A last exertion was made in Spain under the duke of Vendome, at the head of a prodigious army; and the victory obtained by the French at Villa-vitiosa restored Philip V. to the throne of Spain. His competitor, the archduke, soon after became emperor, on the death of his elder brother.

19. The intrigues of the cabinet of queen Anne, and the coming in of a tory ministry, changed the politics of Europe. It was resolved to make peace with France and Spain, and the treaty was concluded at Utrecht in 1,713. It was stipulated that Philip king of Spain should renounce all eventual right to the crown of France, and his brother to the crown of Spain. The Dutch obtained an extension of frontier, and the emperor a great part of Spanish Flanders. The English gained from Spain, Gibraltar and Minorca, and from France, Acadia, Newfoundland, and Hudson's Bay, with the demolition of the harbor of Dunkirk. In the following year, a peace was concluded at Rastadt between France and the empire.

20. The conclusion of this peace, after an honourable war, was the most memorable event in the reign of queen Anne, if we except the union of the two kingdoms of England and Scotland, in 1,706, which was brought about by the negotiation of commissioners mutually chosen, to secure the rights of each kingdom in the best manner for their mutual benefit. It was stipulated that both should be represented by one parliament (Sect. LIX., § 8), that they should have the same privileges with respect to commerce, and that each kingdom

should retain its own laws and established religion. The succession to the crown was limited to the house of Hanover. Queen Anne died on the 30th of July, 1,714. Lewis XIV. died on the 1st of September, 1,715, in the 78th year of his age. He was a prince of great vigour of mind, of good talents, though unimproved by education, of dignified yet amiable manners. His greatest fault was inordinate ambition, to which he sacrificed the real interests of his people. It was his highest honour, that he discerned and recompensed every species of merit. France was in his time equally illustrious by the great military talents of her generals, and by the splendour of literature and of the arts and sciences.

SECTION LXV.

OF THE CONSTITUTION OF FRANCE UNDER THE MONARCHY.

1. It is necessary for understanding the history of France, that we should have some acquaintance with its former monarchical constitution: we shall therefore briefly trace the progress of the government under the different races of its sovereigns. The regal prerogative was extremely limited under the Merovingian princes. (Sect. II., III.) The general assembly of the nation had the right of electing the sovereign, and the power of legislation. Under the Carlovingian race the authority acquired by Pepin and Charlemagne sunk to nothing in the hands of their weak posterity; and though the crown had ceased to be elective, the regal dignity was a mere shadow. The power of the state had passed into the hands of a turbulent aristocracy, ever at variance among themselves, and uniting only to abase the crown and to oppress the people.

2. Under the third or Capetian race the crown acquired more weight, and many of the sovereigns exerted a proper spirit in restraining the power of the nobles, and in punishing their lawless outrages. To balance the weight of the aristocracy Philip the fair introduced the third estate to the national assemblies, which for above four centuries had consisted only of the nobles and clergy. The chief power of the state began now to shift to the scale of the monarch. The national assembly interfered rather to ratify than to decree; and in the fifteenth century the right of legislation was understood to reside wholly in the crown. The right of taxation seemed to follow of course. The assemblies or states-general were now rarely convened, and from the reign of Lewis XIII. were discontinued.

3. But another power gradually rose in the state, which in some measure supplied the function of the assemblies in limiting the royal prerogative. The parliaments were originally the chief courts of justice in the territory where they were established. The parliament of Paris naturally claimed a higher respect and dignity than the parliaments of the provinces; and, acquiring a right of appeal from their decrees, was considered as the paramount jurisdiction, and the depository of the laws of the kingdom. The sovereigns of France, on first assuming the powers of legislation and taxation, produced their edicts to be registered in the court of the parliament of Paris, and frequently consulted with its members on momentous affairs of state, as in questions of peace, war, or alliance. Thus the

nation began to regard the parliament of Paris as a body which shared the powers of government with the monarch. In the latter reigns the parliament availed itself of that general opinion, and made a bold stand in opposing any arbitrary stretches of the king's authority, by refusing to verify and register his edicts.

4. But as this power of the parliament was in reality a usurpation, it was constantly a subject of dispute. The members of this court were in no sense the representatives of the people, nor vested with any portion of the constitutional authority of the national assemblies. They were in the king's nomination, removable by him at pleasure, and even subject to entire annihilation as a body at his command. Even without so violent a remedy, the sovereign could at any time frustrate their opposition to his will, by personally appearing in the hall of parliament, and commanding his edict to be registered.

5. Yet a power thus easily defeasible had its advantages to the state, and operated as a considerable restraint on the royal authority. Considering itself as the guardian of the public liberty, it remonstrated against all arbitrary encroachments of the crown, and by giving alarm to the nation, furnished an opposition sufficiently powerful to obtain its ends. The provincial parliaments, though they likewise registered the royal edicts, never assumed any similar authority. They were only the chief courts of civil judicature.

6. The king of France was therefore to be considered as an absolute monarch, whose authority was in some degree limited by the consuetudinary regulations of the state, and could not easily become entirely despotic and tyrannical. The crown was hereditary, but could not descend to a female, nor to a natural son. The royal revenue was partly fixed and partly arbitrary. The fixed revenue comprehended the royal domains, the duties on wines and salt, the land tax, capitation tax, and gift of the clergy; the other arose from all other taxes which the monarch thought fit to impose, and from the sale of offices. Most of these duties were leased out to the farmers-general.

7. The Gallican church, though catholic, and acknowledging the spiritual authority of the pope, had greatly abridged his ancient prerogatives within the kingdom. The assembly of the church declared, in 1,682, that no temporal sovereign could be deposed by the pope, nor subjects absolved from their allegiance: it decreed the subjection of the pope to the councils of the church, and denied his infallibility when in opposition to the canons of those councils. The pope had no power to levy money in France without the royal license. In short, the ecclesiastical authority was in all repects subordinate to the civil.

SECTION LXVI.

OF PETER THE GREAT, CZAR OF MUSCOVY, AND CHARLES XII., KING OF SWEDEN.

1. Two most illustrious men adorned the north of Europe in the latter part of the age of Lewis XIV., Peter the great of Muscovy, and Charles XII. of Sweden.

Russia is said to have received the light of christianity in the tenth century, but its history is utterly unknown till the middle of

the fifteenth. At that period John Basilowitz redeemed the empire from its subjection to the Tartars, and extended its limits. His successors maintained a considerable splendour as sovereigns; but their dominions were uncultivated, and their subjects barbarians. Alexis Michaelowitz, father of Peter the great, was the first who published a code of laws. At the end of the sixteenth century Siberia was added to the empire, which till that time had been bounded by the limits of Europe.

2. Peter, the youngest son of the emperor Alexis, became master of the empire in 1,689, by setting aside a weak elder brother, and banishing a factious sister, who had seized the government. He was uneducated, and his youth had been spent in debauchery; but his new situation immediately displayed his talents, and gave birth to the wisest plans for the improvement of a barbarous people. The army and navy demanded his first attention. He began by breaking the turbulent militia of the Strelitzes, and by degrees formed a regular army of 12,000 men on the strictest model of discipline. He employed some Dutchmen to build a small fleet, and made the first experiment of his arms in taking Azof from the Turks in 1,696.

3. Having gained the little instruction which he possessed from foreigners, Peter resolved to travel in search of knowledge. Appointing Le Fort, an able Genevese, his ambassador, he travelled as a private person in his suite through Germany to Holland, and studied the art of ship-building, by working in the docks with his own hands. Thence he passed to England, and in a similar manner acquired the knowledge of every art fitted for the improvement of his kingdom. The relative sciences were cultivated with the same ardour and success; and in sixteen months he returned to Moscow to reduce those important acquirements into practice.

4. Regiments were raised and trained to exercise on the German model; the finances arranged and systematized; the church reformed by new canons and regulations; the partriarchate abolished; and a much abused civil and criminal jurisdiction taken from the clergy. It was necessary to carry this reform even to the abolition of the national dress, and the suppression of ancient usages and habits of life, innovations reluctantly submitted to, but enforced by absolute power.

5. While this great genius was thus employed in new-modelling and polishing a barbarous empire, a competitor arose to dispute with him the sovereignty of the north, and to divide the admiration of Europe. Charles XII. succeeded to the throne of Sweden in 1,695, at fifteen years of age; a prince whose singular heroism of character and extraordinary achievements have ranked him with the greatest conquerors of antiquity. The situation of his kingdom speedily brought his genius into display. Russia, Poland, and Denmark, joined in a league to seize and divide his dominions. The attack was begun by the Danes on Holstein, while the king of Poland invaded Livonia, and the czar, Ingria. Charles immediately landed an army on Zealand, at the gates of Copenhagen, and in six weeks forced the king to purchase the safety of his capital and kingdom, by laying down his arms, and making full indemnity to the duke of Holstein. He now hastened into Ingria, and at the battle of Narva defeated 60,000 of the Russians, and took 30,000 prisoners. Such was the first campaign of Charles XII., then a boy of seventeen.

6. Poland was destined to receive a more humiliating chastisement. Charles reduced Courland and Lithuania, penetrated into the

heart of the kingdom, and subdued the capitals of Warsaw and Cracow. He then assembled the states, declared king Augustus deposed, and signified his pleasure that Stanislaus, his own dependant, should be elected sovereign of Poland. The factions of the kingdom aided this revolution, and the will of Charles was complied with. The deposed king retired to his electoral dominions of Saxony.

7. A negotiation begun with the czar was abruptly terminated by Charles, who declared that he would negotiate only at Moscow. Entering the Russian dominions with 45,000 men, he was in the way of executing his threat, when he was induced, by a treacherous promise of aid from the Cossacks, to march through the Ukraine in the depth of winter. His army was wasted by fatigue and famine, when he was encountered by the czar at Pultowa; and the fate of Russia, Sweden, and Poland, hung upon that battle. Charles was entirely defeated: 9,000 Swedes fell in the field, and 14,000 were taken prisoners, 1,709. Augustus was restored to the throne of Poland, and the czar took possession of Finland and Livonia.

8. With the wreck of his army, reduced to 1,800 men, Charles retreated into the Turkish dominions, and formed a camp near Bender. He endeavoured to prevail upon the grand seignior to arm against the czar, and succeeded after a long negotiation. Two hundred thousand Turks took the field, and the czar's army, far inferior in number, was surrounded, and, after ineffectual resistance, forced to capitulate to the grand vizier. The news of this capitulation destroyed all the hopes of Charles; and his subsequent conduct seems the result of frenzy. The grand seignior having intimated his desire that the Swedes should quit his territories, Charles fortified his camp, and declared that he would defend it to the last extremity. After every means ineffectually tried to make him alter this resolution, he was attacked by the Turkish army, and taken fighting sword in hand amidst a massacre of his troops.

9. In the mean time the czar and the king of Denmark were ravaging Sweden. Charles returned in disguise with two of his officers, to his own dominions, and immediately conceived the design of wresting Norway from Denmark. Failing in the outset of this enterprise, he was persuaded by Gortz, his prime minister, to attempt to dethrone George II., to seize a part of his continental dominions, and to place the pretender James on the throne of England. This project was concerted between Gortz and Alberoni, prime minister of Philip V. The czar joined in the scheme, and made peace with Sweden; but an unforeseen event broke all their measures. In besieging the Norwegian fortress of Frederickshall, Charles was killed by a cannon-ball, on the 11th of December, 1,718.

10. Sweden gained by the death of Charles a reformation of her government, and a salutary limitation of the arbitrary power of the sovereign. His sister Ulrica succeeded to the throne, and raised to it her husband, Frederick landgrave of Hesse-Cassel. The states made peace with all the hostile powers. The czar was now engaged in a war with Persia, in the view of obtaining the command and commerce of the Caspian. This object he accomplished, and gained, by cession from the sophi, three provinces of the Persian empire.

Peter the great died January 28, 1,725, and was succeeded by the czarina Catherine, formely a Livonian captive, who possessed merit equal to her elevated station. His only son, Alexis Petrowitz, had been condemned to lose his life for treason, and the mode of his

death, which immediately followed his condemnation, is unknown. Russia owes to Peter the great all those beneficial improvements which have raised her, within the period of a century, from barbarism and obscurity, to the highest rank among the powers of Europe.

SECTION LXVII.

A VIEW OF THE PROGRESS OF SCIENCE AND LITERATURE IN EUROPE, FROM THE END OF THE FIFTEENTH TO THE END OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

1. We have seen how much literature and the sciences were indebted to the art of printing for their advancement and dissemination toward the end of the fifteenth century. (Sect. XXXIV., § 12.) From that period classical learning, criticism, poetry, and history, made a rapid progress in most of the kingdoms of Europe. Philosophy did not keep pace with literature. The dogmas of Aristotle had kept possession of the schools till the seventeenth century, and had engrafted themselves even on the doctrines of theology. It required a superior genius to dissipate the mist of error, and to break the fetters on all advancement in useful science. Such was the great Bacon lord Verulam, the most profound philosopher, and perhaps the most universal genius, that any age has produced. We find in his works an estimate of the actual attainments in all the sciences, a catalogue of the desiderata in each department, and a detail of the methods best suited to prosecute improvement and new discoveries. In fine, we owe to Bacon the sure method of advancing in knowledge by experiment and the observation of nature, instead of system and conjecture.

2. The philosophy of Bacon produced its effect only by slow degrees. Gassendi, though he exposed the doctrines of Aristotle, was still a theorist, and attempted to revive the atomic system of Epicurus. Des Cartes followed in the same track, and reared a whimsical theory of the universe, produced, as he supposed, by the fortuitous combination of atoms, moving in vortices through the immensity of space; a theory recommended by the ingenuity with which it was supported, and its apparently solving many of the phenomena of nature. A century before Copernicus had published his system of the planets, which, though condemned by the church, was received by Des Cartes and the best philosophers.

3. Galileo, in 1,609, constructed telescopes (Sect. XXXIV., § 5), and discovered the satellites of the larger planets, Jupiter and Saturn, and their motions, for which he was rewarded by imprisonment, as a supporter of the Copernican heresy. Kepler investigated the laws which regulated the motions of the planets, and the analogy between their distances from the sun and periodical revolutions. The discoveries in astronomy led to improvements in navigation, and a great advancement of geometry in all its branches. Napier, in 1,614, abridged calculation by the invention of logarithms. The Toricellian experiments determined the weight of the atmosphere. In 1,616 Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood.

4. The Royal Society, which originated from private meetings of the English philosophers, was incorporated by Charles II., in 1,662, and has greatly contributed to the advancement of the sciences and

useful arts. The Royal Academy of Sciences was instituted in 1,666 by Lewis XIV. Similar institutions were founded in most of the countries of Europe; among which there is a communication of science, and a laudable emulation excited by the publication of their transactions.

5. In the end of the seventeenth century arose the immortal Newton, who, by exhausting the most important discoveries of the laws of nature, has rendered it impossible for posterity to eclipse his fame. He had discovered, before the age of twenty-four, the theory of universal gravitation, a principle which solves the chief phenomena of nature, and connects and regulates the whole machine of the universe. His theory of light and colours is the foundation of the whole science of optics, and his *Principia* the basis and elements of all philosophy.

6. Locke, the contemporary of Newton, successfully applied lord Bacon's mode of investigation to the study of the human mind; and, utterly rejecting the systems of the old philosophers, examined the soul by attending to its operations. From the simple fact that all knowledge is progressive, and that an infant gains its ideas gradually through the medium of its senses, he drew the general conclusion, that there are no innate ideas in the mind, but that all are either immediate perceptions conveyed by the senses, or acts of the mind reflecting on those perceptions; a conclusion which has been obstinately controverted, chiefly by drawing from it false consequences, but which has never yet been shaken.

7. The progress of literature in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries was equally remarkable with that of science and philosophy. Trissino was the first of the moderns who composed an epic poem in the language of his country, *L'Italia liberata da Goti*, and the first Italian who wrote a regular tragedy, *Sophonisba*. Of merit much superior to the epic poem of Trissino is the *Lusiad* of the Portuguese Camoens, a work abounding with passages of high poetic beauty, and displaying a sublime imagination. In the end of the sixteenth century Spain produced the *Araucana* of Ercilla, an epic poem of great inequality of merit, but frequently exhibiting novelty of figures and bold conceptions. The subject is a revolt of the Peruvians against the Spaniards.

8. But the principal epic poems of this age are the *Orlando Furioso* of Ariosto, and the *Gierusalemme Liberata* of Tasso: the former a work most irregular in its plan, most unconnected and desultory in its conduct, most extravagant and absurd in the characters of its persons, but displaying alternately every excellence of poetry in the various departments of the descriptive, comic, satiric, moral, and sublime. The *Gierusalemme* of Tasso, of a regular plan and perfect poem in its structure, has been frequently brought in comparison with the equally highly finished poem of the *Æneid;* nor does the Italian suffer much in the comparison. There is a romantic charm both in the incidents and characters of his poem, which must ever render it a favourite with all readers of genuine taste.

9. From the time of Tasso the genius of epic poetry lay dormant for a century, till the days of Milton; for the *Fairy Queen* of Spenser is rather a romantic allegory than an epic poem. The *Paradise Lost*, compared with the great poems of antiquity, is more irregular and less perfect as a whole than the *Iliad*, *Æneid*, and *Odyssey;* but exhibits, in detached parts, more of the sublime and beautiful than any of them. It has been well remarked, that the inequality of this poem arises in a great measure from the nature of the subject, of which

some parts are the most lofty which can enter into the human mind, and others could only have been supported by a laborious elegance and polish, which the author's genius could not stoop to bestow.

10. Lyric poetry was cultivated in the sixteenth century, in Italy, France, and England, but with no great success. The less poems of Ariosto and Tasso have no tincture of the genius displayed in their greater works. Chiabrera is perhaps the only lyric poet of this period that merits distinction. In France, Ronsard and Bellay imitated Petrarch with all his false wit, but without his passion. Marot, however, in the *naivete* and easy vein of his humour, is justly accounted the master of La Fontaine. In the beginning of the seventeenth century French versification received a considerable polish from the compositions of Racan, and yet more from those of Malherbe; and toward the end of that century lyric poetry was cultivated with high success by La Farre, Chapelle, and Bachaumont, Chaulieu and Gresset.

11. The English lyric poetry of the sixteenth century, of Spenser, Surrey, Harrington, Sydney, and even Shakespeare, is harsh and unharmonious; nor is much improvement discernible till the time of Cowley and Waller. The merit of Cowley as a lyric poet was too highly prized in his own age, and is underrated in ours. With all his false wit, pedantry, and obscurity, he is often both sublime and pathetic in no moderate degree. The lyric ode in the third book of the *Davideis* has few parallels in the English language. As a prose writer, Cowley shines in that age with superior excellence. Waller is more polished and harmonious than any of the preceding or contemporary poets, but his wit is quaint, and his elevation too frequently bombast.

12. Dryden, in the end of the seventeenth century, carried lyric poetry to perfection. His Ode on St Cecilia's day surpasses all the lyric compositions both of ancient and modern times. He shines conspicuously as a satirist, possessing the keen and caustic wit, without the indelicacy, of Juvenal or Horace. His versions from Chaucer and Boccacio are easy and spirited, and display a happy talent for poetical narrative. His numerous dramatic pieces, though exhibiting both invention and poetic beauty, are deficient in true passion, and in the just delineation of character.

13. At the end of the sixteenth century the drama in Europe began to furnish a rational entertainment. At that period, Lope de Vega and Calderona in Spain, and Shakespeare in England, produced those pieces, which, though irregular and stained with blemishes, are at this day the admiration of their countrymen. The Spanish plays of that age have been a rich mine for succeeding dramatists, both among the French, Italians, and English. The merits of Shakespeare are familiar to every person of taste. Ignorant of the rules of his art, he is the pure child of nature, and thus exhibits often her caprices and absurdities; but these are redeemed by the most transcendent beauties. The old English drama is, with all its irregularities, incomparably superior to the modern, both in touching the passions and in displaying just views of human character. The persons are more discriminated by various and appropriate features, and the nicer shades of nearly resembling characters are thus more distinctly marked. The mixture of the comic and tragic in the same plot, though condemned by modern practice, is a great source of pleasure in the pieces of Shakespeare and his contemporaries; nor is there any thing in such a mixture but what is consonant to nature. To a per-

son of true taste it will be found often to heighten, by contrast, the capital emotion to be excited.

14. The compositions for the French stage, in the end of the seventeenth century, are strictly conformable to dramatic rules; and many of those pieces are models of a correct and polished taste. The morality of the French drama of that age and the next is in general purer than ours; but their pieces are deficient in the nice delineation of character, and in the power of exciting the passions. Corneille and Racine brought the French tragedy to its highest elevation; as Moliere the comedy. Corneille has more grandeur and sublimity than his rival, who excels him in the tender and pathetic. The comedies of Moliere, highly amusing in the present time, were more particularly valuable in the age when they were written, and had a sensible effect in correcting its prevailing follies; the pedantry of the ladies, the ignorance and quackery of the physicians, and the pride and arrogance of the French noblesse. The last of the eminent dramatists who adorned France in the seventeenth century was the elder Crebillon, who drew many sublime and impassioned scenes from the source of terror; and who, in all his works, was as eminently the friend of virtue as his worthless son has been the pander of vice.

15. The most eminent historians of the sixteenth century are, De Thou, Davila, and Machiavel. De Thou has written the annals of his own time, from 1,545 to 1,607, with great judgment, and in most elegant Latin composition. The history of Davila, the annals of the civil wars of France in the time of the league, though the work of a partisan, is composed with no common degree of candour and impartiality. In the beginning of the sixteenth century Machiavel wrote his History of Florence, of which the style is classical and the matter well arranged, but too much interrupted by reflections and political discussions. In the seventeenth century Bentivoglio composed his History of the Civil Wars of Flanders, with the most accurate knowledge of his subject, perspicuity of narrative, and elegance of style. Among the English historians in the beginning of that period Raleigh is the most distinguished; though his History of the World is, in point of style, inferior to the judgment shown in the arrangement of the matter. In the latter part of the seventeenth century, Clarendon's History of the Rebellion is a work of the highest merit, whether we consider the authenticity of the facts, the deep knowledge of human nature displayed in the delineation of the characters, or the grave and manly eloquence of the style. If, in the opposition of political opinions, he has been deemed too partial in defence of his sovereign, even his adversaries have admitted his perfect integrity, and entire conviction of the rectitude of the cause which he supports.

HISTORY OF THE JEWS.

SECTION I.

A GENERAL VIEW OF THE HISTORY OF MANKIND IN THE PRIMEVAL AGES.

1. In contemplating those great outlines of history, the memorable and important events which have determined the condition of mankind, and rendered the aspect of the moral and intellectual world such as we now view it, we shall find abundant subjects for observation and eflection. In many cases we shall be obliged to have recourse to conjecture, founded on different degrees of probability; and some of those probabilities may be so corroborated by general existing circumstances as to amount almost to certainty.

2. Of the primeval state of mankind we know little from historical information, and can form an opinion of it only from conjecture founded on the nature of things. From the extremely slow progress of civilization it is reasonable to suppose that men must have existed a long time before they began to write the history of such transactions and events as they deemed most important. All their care and attention would at first be employed in providing the means of supplying their physical wants, and of rendering their existence tolerable. In that state of simple nature they would not think of transmitting an account of their actions to posterity, and could hardly have any occurrences worth recording. Here our knowledge of human nature and of human wants will supply the deficiency of history. From the experience of our own wants, and of the means of supplying them, we may infer almost with certainty, that habitations would be built as a shelter from the inclemency of the weather: and in fact we find this to be the case in all those countries which are at present occupied by savages. In process of time some attention would be given to the cultivation of the soil, to make the earth produce such vegetables as were fit for the food of man. The arts most essential to the comfortable existence of the human species would be invented before the use of letters.

3. From all these circumstances we may reasonably suppose that the first rude sketch of history would be the traditionary tales delivered from father to son through successive generations; and these in reality constitute the basis of the first historical records. Such are the fabulous relations of the first historians among the Greeks. It appears that the Greeks had adopted the historical legends of the Egyptian priests, who were accustomed to cover their religion and learning with the mystical veil of allegory; and that in many cases they mistook the Egyptian mode of allegorizing the early periods of history, and have presented to posterity an absurd and monstrous tissue of fabulous narrative of kings who never reigned, and of heroes of celestial descent.

4. Superstition being natural to man before the mind is enlightened by philosophy, it is no wonder that the writings of the first historians contain many relations of the communication of gods and demi-gods with mankind, and of the frequent interference of supernatural agents in human affairs. The vivid imaginations of the early Greek authors, heated with superstition, and unrestrained by philosophy, expanded into wild exuberance, and fabricated the most absurd and ridiculous tales. Hence the period of time which elapsed between the establishment of political and civil society in Greece, and the Trojan war may be justly denominated the fabulous age; and indeed most part of what is related concerning that war, has evident marks of fiction stamped upon it; for all the historical accounts of it are originally founded on the poems of Homer. No writings can claim the title of an authentic history of Grecian affairs before the Persian wars. The histories of all other heathen nations were not less fabulous and absurd than those of the Greeks; and indeed all that we know concerning them has been transmitted to us through the medium of Greek writers.

5. When we consider the general state of the world in the early ages, with respect to political, commercial, and literary communication, however we may amuse ourselves with perusing the accounts transmitted to us of the transactions of remote antiquity, reason tells us that they are nothing but fiction or historical romance. Until the Greeks (who were the inventors, or at least the improvers of arts and sciences) had attained a considerable degree of civilization and opulence, and had begun to cultivate the arts of conveniency, luxury, and elegance, little credit is due to profane history. This period cannot be fixed long before the first Persian war, which happened about 503 years before the birth of Christ. For information relative to the state of mankind, and the events which occurred before that period, we must have recourse to the writings of the Jews.

6. This consideration naturally leads us to turn our attention to those ancient records of the Jews, which have always been deemed sacred by them, and of which the authenticity has been acknowledged by the generality of mankind, who have perused them with due attention. The Jewish annals are the most ancient of all that have been transmitted to us, and the most intrinsically rational and probable. They likewise contain a series of transactions and events equally curious and interesting. In them we find the only rational account of the creation of the world, and the beginning of things; of the dispersion of mankind, and the origin of ancient nations.

SECTION II.

SUMMARY VIEW OF JEWISH HISTORY.

1. The Israelites, or ancient Jews, were those distinguished people, who were favoured by the immediate care of the Almighty, and conducted by his especial guidance to Judea, a place of residence promised to their remote ancestors. In consequence of their obstinacy, idolatry, and wickedness, and more particularly for the rejection of their Messiah, they were subdued by the Romans, after sustaining a siege in their metropolis, Jerusalem, unparalleled in the

annals of history for its distresses, calamities, and slaughter. Jerusalem was reduced to ruins, the Jewish government was totally subverted, and the surviving people were dispersed over most parts of the world. Their descendants still remain unmixed with the rest of mankind, and are marked by their original features of national peculiarity: they adhere with the most zealous attachment to the religion of their forefathers, and cherish the hopes of restoration to their former prosperity and country by means of a glorious and triumphant Deliverer.

2. They preserve, with the most watchful care, the sacred books of their ancient writers. And astonishing, *very astonishing it is to observe, that in the prophetical parts of these sacred books are contained all the events before mentioned of their extraordinary history.* Their particular conduct, and the vicissitudes of their national affairs, were predicted by their prophets, and more especially by Moses, their great law-giver, in the infancy of the world, at the vast distance of thirty-three centuries from the present times. The accomplishment of these predictions bears the fullest and most striking evidence to the truth and inspiration of their prophets, and illustrates the dispensations of Providence to his chosen people.

3. These sacred books contain likewise predictions the most exact of the character, office, and actions of the Messiah of the Jews, the great Law-giver of the christians, the appointed Saviour of the world.

4. Such interesting circumstances as these, in addition to the peculiar nature of the Jewish polity, considered as a divine institution, the curious manners and customs, and the memorable actions of the descendants of Abraham, the most ancient people of whom we have any authentic accounts, combine to place these books first in order of importance, as in order of time. If we consider *the great antiquity, the subjects, and the characters of the writers, of these books*, and the place which they occupy in the order of general history, particularly as they stand connected with the christian revelation, they will be found to deserve our very earnest attention.

SECTION III.

THE ANTIQUITY OF THE SCRIPTURES.

1. No writings of any other nation can be brought into competition, in respect of antiquity, with those of the Jews. In proof of this assertion it may be remarked, that Moses lived more than a thousand years before the age of Herodotus, who is reputed the father of Grecian history. As another proof of the priority of the Jews to the Greeks, it appears by the confession of the Greek writers, that they received the letters of their alphabet from the Phœnicians; and there are very sufficient grounds for believing that the Phœnicians derived the art of writing from the Jews. The learned and acute Porphyry, who was an equal enemy both to Jews and christians, and much attached to the learning of Greece, candidly acknowledged that Moses, and the prophets who immediately succeeded him, flourished nearly a thousand years before any of the Greek philosophers.

2. The books which compose the canon of the Jewish scriptures have the concurrence of all antiquity in favour of their originality. They were delivered to the Hebrews in their own language, with

every mark of genuineness, by the persons whose names they bear; and those persons, by recording contemporary events, constantly appealed to well-known proofs of their regard to truth. The prophetical books in particular contain the evidences of their inspiration, as well as of the integrity and piety of their authors. The external proofs are clear and strong, as well as the internal; in consequence of which all these books have always been preserved with the greatest care, and have been held in the highest veneration.

3. It is no less curious than important to remark the traditions preserved in the pagan world, which confirm the truth of the Pentateuch, or the five books written by Moses. The Chaldeans preserved the history of their Xisurus, who was the Noah of Moses. The Egyptians asserted that Mercury had engraved his doctrine upon columns, which had resisted the violence of a deluge. The Chinese historians record that Peyrun, a mortal beloved and protected by the gods, saved himself in a vessel from the general inundation. The Hindoos say that the waters of the ocean spread over the surface of the earth, except one mountain to the north; that one woman and seven men saved themselves on this mountain, with certain plants and animals. They add, in speaking of their god Vishnou, that at the deluge he transformed himself into a fish, and conducted the vessel which preserved the relics of the human race. This vessel is likewise a subject of tradition in the northern parts of the world. Sulivan's View of Nature, Letter 67.

4. That the sacrifice of animals was necessary to appease the offended gods, was a religious tenet very general and very ancient. The account of the long lives of the patriarchs is confirmed by writers of various countries. Their primitive manners, and their mode of performing sacrifices, and offering prayers to the great Author of nature on the summits of mountains, and in the retirements of groves, agree with the descriptions of Homer, and many other early writers. Zoroaster, the great teacher of the ancient Persians, derived from the books of Moses the first principles of his religion, his ceremonial laws, his account of the creation, of the first parents of mankind, of the patriarchs, and particularly of Abraham, whose pure religion he professed to restore.

5. In the attributes and characters of the heathen gods may be found allusions to the ancient expressions of the Hebrew scriptures. In the customs, laws, and ceremonies of many other nations may be traced a resemblance to the Mosaical institutions. In the accounts of the deities of the Pagans, and the early heroes and benefactors of mankind, particularly in those which adorn the pages of Grecian history, are represented many of the patriarchs and illustrious persons of scripture. Many principles of the most eminent philosophers, many fictions of the most celebrated poets, both of Greece and Rome, and many institutions of the most renowned heathen lawgivers, cannot fail, by their circumstances of resemblance, to direct our attention to the great legislator of the Jews. The most venerable and ancient traditions of the world seem to contain the parts of one original and uniform system, which was broken by the dispersion of the primeval families after the deluge, and corrupted by the revolution of ages. They were the streams which flowed through the various countries of the earth, from the great source of Mosaical history.*

* See Stillingfleet, b. iii, c. 5; Bryant's Mythology; Maurice's Indian Antiquities; Raleigh's History of the World, p. 71.

6. Josephus, the Jewish historian, flourished in the reign of the emperor Vespasian. He was a person of great learning and eminence, and conducted his inquiries with singular diligence, industry, and care. He corroborates the testimony of the sacred writers, and illustrates their truth; as he not only gives a regular detail of the most remarkable transactions of the Jews, but introduces considerable notices of all those people, with whom they formed alliances, or carried on wars. In his treatise against Apion he exposes the contradictions which occurred in the Egyptian, Chaldean, and Phœnician records; vindicates the authority of the Jewish scriptures; describes the care which was taken in their preservation; and states their superior pretensions, more particularly in point of antiquity, to the respect and reverence of mankind.*

SECTION IV.

THE SUBJECTS OF THE BOOKS, AND CHARACTERS OF THE WRITERS.

1. The subjects of the books of the Old Testament are truly wonderful and striking, and of such a nature as to surpass all monuments of profane learning, equally in importance as in antiquity. Of all parts which compose the sacred canon, none are more curious than *Genesis*, the first book written by Moses; because it contains a sketch of the earliest history of mankind. There stand recorded the creation of the world and its inhabitants, the fall of our first parents from their state of innocence and happiness, and their banishment from the garden of Eden; the repeated and signal promises of a future restorer of the lost blessings of mankind; the history of the patriarchs, honoured by the revelations of Jehovah; the description of the general deluge; the dispersion of the progenitors of the human race over all the earth; the adoption of a particular family to perpetuate the remembrance, and establish the worship of the true God, and their prosperous settlement in Egypt. Instances indeed are mentioned of early depravity, and of the violence of the passions, attended with suitable punishments; yet society appears under its simplest form in point of manners, and we discern no traces of the luxury and false refinement of subsequent times.

2. In the books of the Jews is recorded an account of the descendants of Israel; a race of men selected from all others, and favoured with successive revelations of the divine will. Here are shown the instances of their fidelity, perverseness, and disobedience; their glory and triumphs; their disgraces, and their subjection to foreign powers. Here is seen the superintendance of a divine and especial Providence watching over innocence, suspending wrath, and taking the most signal vengeance upon unrepented offences. Here are developed the failings of the most virtuous persons, and the obdurate wickedness of confirmed sinners. Here are displayed the mixed characters even of the most excellent men, the eminent examples of faith and piety, of courage and patience, in the conduct of Abraham, Lot, Job, Joseph, Moses, David, Hezekiah, Josiah, and Daniel.

* Kett's Interpreter of Prophecy, vol. i, p. 200. Lardner, vol. vii, p. 30, 259, &c.

And most interesting is it to observe, that the knowledge of the one true God was communicated to this people, and preserved by them alone; that they had the most sublime ideas of his nature and attributes; that a magnificent temple was erected to his honour; a regular service was instituted; holy ceremonies were performed; an order of priests of one particular family was consecrated; a pure worship was established by his express command, and regulated by his particular laws. Thus were the Jews enlightened by a knowledge of the true object of divine worship; and thus were the purity and holiness of their religious ordinances conducted, at a time when all other nations presented a wide scene of gross superstition and mental darkness; when the rest of the human race, and even the most intelligent and polished nations of Egypt and Greece, showed the most abject degradation of their nature, by prostrating themselves before idols of their own workmanship; and abused the evidence of sense, and the faculty of reason, by imputing to wood and stone the attributes of divine power.

3. We see likewise a succession of prophets raised up among the Jews, to communicate the divine will, to warn them of evils, and to announce to them blessings to come. These holy men, ever obedient to the call of Heaven, rose superior to all worldly considerations; and with a spirit of intrepidity and independence, which clearly showed that Heaven was the source of their reliance, they executed their sacred commissions, unawed by the threats of kings, or the resentment of the people. They foretold remote events in times when they appeared most improbable ever to take place, and when no human foresight, and no calculation of chances, could guide them to the discovery of the particular affairs, which fulfilled their predictions. Moses, in a long and most interesting detail of threats and promises, foretold the exact manner in which his people were ordained to be happy or miserable, according as they followed or disobeyed the divine laws. At a subsequent period, when Jerusalem was laid in ruins, and the Jews were groaning under the sorrows of the Babylonish captivity, Isaiah solemnly addressed Cyrus by his name, more than a hundred years before his birth, as the deliverer of Israel, and the new founder of the Holy City.* When Babylon was shining in the meridian of its glory, and its monarchs ruled over all the nations of the east with the most despotic sway, the same prophet predicted the total subversion of their empire, and the complete desolation of their vast metropolis. That all these and numerous other predictions were exactly verified by the events, are truths confirmed by the evidence of profane as well as sacred history.

4. The same inspired prophets had a much more grand and important object in view, than to declare the future dispensations of Providence to one nation in particular; for they announced, in terms at first dark and mysterious, but progressively more clear and circumstantial, the future birth of a Messiah, a glorious king, a divine legislator, who was to abolish the sacrifices and religious institutions of the Jews, and to proclaim and establish a general law for the observance and happiness of all mankind. Here the evangelists contribute their aid to illustrate the declarations of the prophets, and unite the history of the Old with that of the New Testament, in the most close and indissoluble bonds of union.

* Isaiah, B. C. 757. Cyrus, B. C. 589. Kett's Interpreter of Prophecy, vol. i, p. 130.

5. The historical books of scripture, considered from the time of the giving of the law to Moses to the reformation in the worship and government by Nehemiah, after the Babylonish captivity, contain a summary account of the Jewish affairs for a period of eleven centuries.* They were evidently not intended to give a complete detail of national transactions, as their writers had a more sublime and important end in view. To illustrate the prophecies, by relating circumstances which existed at the time when they were uttered, and to show their accomplishment; to record various revelations of the divine will, and to describe the state of religion among the Hebrews, and the various dispensations of Providence, in public as well as in private occurrences, seem to have been their chief objects. Hence it is that the chain of history is sometimes broken into detached parts, and its detail is interrupted by a recital of private transactions. The books of scripture occasionally assume the form, and comprise the beauties of a very interesting kind of biography. Of this nature are the several accounts of Job, Ruth, and Esther; but they are far from being unconnected with the principal design of the sacred writers; inasmuch as they show that the same divine Providence which presided over the nation at large, extended its particular care to individuals, and that the examples of private virtue were inseparable from the great interests of public welfare and happiness.

6. The Israelites, for many ages separated from the rest of mankind by their peculiar institutions, were little acquainted with commerce, and made small advances in those arts, which, with a refinement, and a diversity of employments, introduce luxury and corruption of manners. They were governed by equal laws, and possessed nearly equal property. They admitted no hereditary distinction of rank, except in favour of the regal tribe of Judah, and the sacerdotal family of Levi. Their occupations from the earliest times were of the most simple kind, and consisted in pasturage and agriculture. To guide the plough, and tend the flock, were employments which, recommended by the innocence of primeval manners, and dignified by length of time, were exercised by kings, prophets, and generals. Moses was called from feeding his flock, to conduct the Israelites to the promised land; Elisha forsook the plough, to be invested with the mantle of prophecy; and Gideon left the threshing-floor, to lead the army of his country to battle.

7. The country of Judea presented a scene diversified by fruitful vallies, barren rocks, and lofty mountains, and was watered by numerous streams. It produced the palm-tree, the balsam, the vine, the olive, the fig, and all the fruits which abound in the more temperate regions of Asia. From the labours of the field, and from cultivating the vine, the attention of the Israelites was regularly called by religious worship, which was intimately blended with the civil constitution of the state. The splendour of their public services, the pomp and magnificence of their rites and ceremonies, the stated recurrence of their various festivals and sacrifices, the sabbath, the passover, the celebration of the sabbatical year, and the jubilee; and, more than all, the constant experience of divine interposition, filled their minds with the most awful and grand ideas, and gave them the deepest impressions of the majesty, power, goodness, and justice of God.

* Moses, B. C. 1,571. Nehemiah, B. C. 546. Gray's Key to the Old Testament, p. 124.

8. These were the circumstances which, combining to form their national manners, had the greatest influence upon their writings. The historical style is marked by the purest simplicity of ideas, occasionally raised to a tone of elevation. In the works of Moses there is a majesty of thought, which is most strikingly expressed in plain and energetic language. In the prophetical writings the greatest splendour and sublimity of composition are conspicuous. They are enriched by those glowing images, and raised by that grandeur of diction, which charm the classical reader in the most admired productions of Greece and Rome. The royal psalmist is eloquent, dignified, and pathetic. All the beauties of composition unite in Isaiah, such is the majesty of his ideas, the propriety, beauty, and fertility of his imagery, and the elegance of his language, employed upon the noblest subjects which could possibly engage our attention. Jeremiah excels in those expressions of tenderness, which excite, with the most pleasing enthusiasm, the feelings of compassion.

9. By such peculiar beauties of composition are recommended the most interesting details of events, and the most faithful delineations of characters. The great Creator calls all things into existence with his omnipotent word. The first parents of mankind, innocent and happy, are blessed with his immediate converse, and enjoy the blooming groves of Paradise. Joseph, the pious, the chaste, and the wise, after having undergone great afflictions, and rising by his extraordinary merit to an office of the highest honour in the court of Pharaoh, discovers himself in a manner the most pathetic to his repentant brethren, and is restored to his aged and affectionate father, whom he invites into Egypt to share his prosperity. The children of Israel, guided by the divine Power, which veils its glory in a cloud, pass safely through the Red Sea, in which the host of the impious Pharaoh are overwhelmed. Upon the summit of Mount Sinai Moses receives the two tables of the commandments, amid the thunder, lightning, clouds, and darkness, which obscure the great Jehovah from his eyes. The royal psalmist sings the wonders of creation, the powers of his God, and his own defeats and triumphs. The peaceful and prosperous Solomon, whose renown was extended over all the east, rears the structure of the magnificent temple; and amid the multitudes of his adoring subjects consecrates it to the service of the one true God, in a prayer which equally attests his wisdom and his piety. In the visions of futurity Isaiah beholds the deliverance of the chosen people; the complete destruction of the great empire of Babylon, by which they were enslaved; and the promised Messiah, the Saviour of mankind, sometimes depressed by want and sorrow, and sometimes arrayed in the emblems of divine majesty and power. He predicts the final recal of the Jews to their native land, and the wide diffusion of the christian faith. Jeremiah sinks a weeping mourner over the ruins of his native city, deplores its calamities, and consoles his countrymen by expressly declaring, that they should never cease to be a nation to the end of the world. Daniel explains to Belshazzar the mystic characters inscribed upon the walls of his palace, and views, in his wide prospect of future times, the fates of the four great empires of the world. Cyrus, long before announced by Isaiah, as the great subverter of the Babylonish empire, and the restorer of the glory of Jerusalem, publishes his decree for the restoration of the captive Jews; and the holy city and temple rise from their ruins with new grandeur and magnificence. The

Jews are settled and reformed by the pious care of Nehemiah, and the canon of the scriptures is closed by Malachi. This last of the prophets enjoins the strict observance of the law of Moses, till the great Precursor should appear, in the spirit of Elias, to announce the approach of the Messiah, who was to establish a new and an everlasting covenant.*

10. Such are a few of the interesting circumstances contained in the books of the Old Testament, which engage our attention, charm our imagination, and gratify our curiosity, while they confirm our belief in the great evidences of revelation. In all these works we may remark the bright truths of religious instruction, shining forth amid the venerable simplicity of the most ancient history; a history unrivalled for the grandeur of the ideas which it conveys, the liveliness of its descriptions, and the number of its beautiful and sublime images.

11. In these books of sacred history there is an *impartiality* of narrative, which is an undoubted characteristic of truth. If we read the Lives of Plutarch, or the History of Livy, we soon discover that these writers composed their works under the influence of many prejudices in favour of their respectives countries. A veil is thrown over the defects of their heroes, but their virtues are placed in a strong light, and painted in vivid colours. In the scriptures, on the contrary, both of the Old and the New Testament, the strictest impartiality prevails. The vices of David, Solomon, and their successors, are neither concealed nor palliated. There is no ostentation of vanity, no parade of panegyric; virtue charms with her native beauty, and vice requires no disguise to conceal her deformity. The characters of persons are sketched, and the effects of the passions are represented without reserve or concealment; and the moral to be drawn from each description is so obvious, as to account for the frequent omission of remarks and applications. The abject condition of the Jews, when prohibited the use of weapons of war by the victorious Philistines; their relapses into idolatry, their perverseness of disposition, and their various defeats and captivities, with every circumstance of private as well as public disgrace, are recorded without palliation or reserve. Always rising superior to the motives which induce other authors to violate the purity and degrade the majesty of truth, these writers keep one great and most important end constantly in view, and show the various methods by which the providence of God effected his gracious designs; how he produced good from evil, and employed the sins and follies of mankind as the instruments of his gracious purposes.

12. An acquaintance with the affairs of the Jewish nation forms the first link in the chain of ancient records. Thus we may observe the connexion which subsists between the branches of sacred and profane history. We place the works of pagan writers in their proper situation, and give them additional value, by making them subservient to the cause of religion, and instrumental in the illustration of revealed truth. If the student is not called upon by professional inducements to read the scriptures in their original languages, he may rest contented with translations; and it seems to be a well-

* For these very impressive passages of the Bible, see Gen. i, ii, xliv, xlv; Exod. xiv, xx; the Psalms; 1 Kings viii; Isaiah ii, vi, ix, x, xi, xiv, xxviii, xxxii, xl, xliii, lx, lxi, lxiii, lxv, and more particularly liii; Lament. i, &c.; Daniel v, vii; Ezra vii; Nehem. xiii; Malachi iii, iv.

founded opinion among the learned, that he may rely with confidence upon the general fidelity of our English version.

SECTION V.

OF THE ANTEDILUVIAN WORLD.

1. An authentic account of the creation of the world, and of the primitive state of mankind is to be found only in the bible. There we are informed by Moses, the most ancient of all historians, that in the beginning God created the earth, the celestial bodies, and all things both animate and inanimate; that he created one man and one woman, named Adam and Eve, and placed them in a garden or paradise, situated in the land of Eden. According to the best chronologers the creation of the world was accomplished in the year 4,004 A. C. Adam and Eve soon transgressed the commands of God, and were therefore expelled from their delightful abode.

2. Adam and Eve had two sons, whose names were Cain and Abel. Cain, the elder, was a husbandman, and Abel was a shepherd. Cain was of a vicious, Abel of a virtuous disposition. Hence the worship of Abel was more acceptable to the Lord than that of Cain. Instigated by envy and malice, Cain killed his brother when they were together in the field. For this atrocious crime he was severely punished by the Lord, and became "a fugitive and a vagabond upon the earth."

3. After the murder of Abel, another son, named Seth, was born to Adam. From this time the descendants of Adam multiplied rapidly, and at length spread over the face of the earth.

4. One of the most remarkable circumstances of the former world is the longevity of the people. Adam lived 930 years, Seth 912 years, Jared 962 years, Methuselah 969 years, Noah 950 years.

5. In process of time mankind became so wicked that the Lord was resolved to destroy them by a deluge. Amid the general corruption and depravity of the human race one virtuous man was found. Noah, the son of Lamech, zealous for the reformation of men, became a preacher of righteousness to the degenerate and vicious people among whom he lived, and employed both his council and authority to reclaim them; but in vain. And God commanded Noah to build a great ship, called an *ark*, and to put in it his wife, his three sons and their wives, and also a few males and females of every species of living things, that they might be saved from the general deluge which would shortly overwhelm the whole earth, and extirpate all creatures. The flood continued 150 days, and then gradually subsided. Noah and his family, and all the animals, went out of the ark (2,343 A. C.); and in process of time they multiplied and spread over the surface of the earth, as we now see them.

6. Of the literary and scientific attainments of the antediluvians we know very little. From the Mosaic account they do not appear to have been great. Moses has briefly informed us what was the origin of various customs and arts, and has recorded the names of their inventors. Lamech the son of Cain gave the first example of polygamy. Cain built the first city, and introduced the use of weights and measures. One of Cain's grandsons "was the father of such as dwell in tents, and of such as have cattle." Jubal invented music; Tubal Cain the arts of forging iron, and of casting brass; and a woman called Naamah the arts of spinning and weaving.

Their religious rites were few and simple. They worshipped God by prayer, and sacrifices of certain animals.

SECTION VI.

FIRST AGES AFTER THE DELUGE.

1. The remembrance of the three sons of Noah, the first founders of the nations of the earth after the deluge, has been preserved among the several nations descended from them. Japhet peopled the greater part of the west, and continued long famous under the name of Japetus. Ham was reverenced as a deity by the Egyptians, under the title of Jupiter Hammon. The memory of Shem has always been venerated by his descendants, the Hebrews, who derived their name from his son Heber.

2. Except the building of the tower of Babel no event of importance occurs in the history of Moses during the space of nearly 1,100 years from the deluge to the *call* of Abraham. About 100 years after the deluge the descendants of Noah were become numerous at the foot of Mount Ararat, and in the plain of Shinaar, extending along the banks of the Euphrates and the Tigris. They found that the country was not extensive enough to contain them much longer, and therefore that they must separate. They agreed to build a very high tower, which might be a signal of union, if they should ever desire to return to their native country. When they had raised the tower to a certain height, the workmen suddenly perceived that they did not understand the words of one another, and that all spoke different languages. Consequently it was impossible to continue the work, and the people dispersed in different directions. Hence the origin of different languages, and the dispersion of the human race over the habitable globe.

3. Soon after this memorable event, Nimrod, a violent and imperious man, built the city of Babel, or Babylon, and laid the foundation of the first great empire, called the Babylonian, which was afterwards so famous in the history of the Jews.

SECTION VII.

OF THE JEWS.

1. The Jews derived their origin from Abraham, the son of Terah, the tenth in lineal descent from Shem the son of Noah. The descendants of Shem spread from Armenia, where the ark is supposed to have rested after the deluge, to Mesopotamia, and thence into Chaldea, where Abraham was born. As Abraham was appointed to be the progenitor of a great and distinguished nation, God separated him from the other descendants of Shem, by causing Terah to remove from Chaldea into the country of Haram, near the borders of Mesopotamia, where he died. Abraham intended to settle in Haram; but in obedience to the will of God, he removed into the land of Canaan, which was appointed to be the inheritance of his posterity. From this period commences a long series of events, which are recorded in the book of Genesis, and are represented as immediately directed by the Lord.

2. After Abraham arrived in Canaan, his first care was to erect an

altar for the worship of God, who appeared to him, and confirmed the promise which he had before made to him, to give the country to his children. When he had lived some time in Canaan, a famine compelled him to remove his family into Egypt, (1,916 A. C.), where he resided till the famine ceased, and then returned. His wife Sarah, when she was advanced in years, brought him a son, who was called Isaac. When Isaac grew to man's estate he married Rebecca, who was afterward the mother of Jacob. In process of time Jacob had ten sons, who were the fathers of ten tribes. By the command of the Lord, Jacob took the name of Israel, and hence his posterity were called Israelites, or the children of Israel.

3. Joseph, the ninth son, was the favourite of his father, which excited the jealousy and hatred of his elder brothers, who sold him to some merchants, and told Jacob that he had been devoured by wild beasts. The merchants carried their slave into Egypt, and sold him to Potiphar, an officer of king Pharaoh's guard, 1,724 A. C. Joseph served Potiphar with such diligence and fidelity, that he soon committed to him the care of his domestic affairs.

The wife of Potiphar repeatedly attempted to seduce Joseph into the gratification of her amorous propensities; but her immodest advances being rejected with disdain, she was incensed, and maliciously accused him of an attempt to violate her chastity. On this false accusation he was immediately thrown into prison, but was soon liberated by the king. Such is, in all ages and in all countries, the vindictive disposition of a lascivious woman, whose allurements have been neglected or resisted. The *disappointed* wanton prosecutes, with everlasting enmity, the innocent object of her carnal desires!

4. Joseph, being skilful in the interpretation of dreams, was introduced to Pharaoh king of Egypt, who was perplexed by two dreams which he could not explain. Joseph interpreted his dreams, which predicted abundant products of the earth for seven years, and afterward a dreadful famine for seven years. He was released from prison, and appointed to conduct the affairs of Egypt under Pharaoh.

5. In consequence of the famine with which Canaan was afflicted (as it had been foretold), Jacob and his family removed into Egypt, 1,702 A. C. Joseph assigned them a residence in the land of Goshen, a fertile country fit for pasturage, situated between the Nile and the Red Sea. In this happy country the descendants of Jacob increased and flourished, and became so numerous and prosperous that at length the envy and fears of the Egyptians began to be excited against them. To check their prosperity rigorous measures were pursued by the rulers of Egypt. Their lives were imbittered by hard service, and all their male children were ordered to be drowned at their birth.

6. Till the time of their residence in the land of Goshen, the Hebrews had led a pastoral life, and had not been subject to any regular form of government. Children were obedient to their parents, and servants to their masters. Religion appeared in its most simple and amiable form. One God, the Creator and Governor of the world, was worshipped without images, and without an established priesthood. Equal purity in faith and worship, in principle and practice, prevailed among the people. But in proportion as wealth and luxury increased, the religion of the Hebrews became more sensual. Like all eastern nations they were prone to the worship of the heavenly bodies. Priestcraft employed images, and the delusive artifices of superstition to attract the devotion of the people.

7. The history of the Hebrews, during the patriarchal ages, is related in the first book of Moses, with simplicity, minuteness, and apparent fidelity. There we read a description of ancient customs and manners in the lives of the patriarchs, Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob. The story of Joseph and his brethren has been always admired for the simplicity of the language, and the affecting circumstances which it exhibits. As the numerous facts and incidents in the early periods of the history of the Hebrews are familiar to every reader, and are besides of little importance in the political annals of the nation, it seems superfluous to enter into a detail of them. We shall therefore next present a compendious view of the history of the Hebrews from the period of their departure out of Egypt, 1,487 A. C.

8. After much oppression and suffering, God raised up a deliverer of his chosen people, who rescued them from a state of cruel servitude, and brought them out of the land of bondage. This deliverer was Moses, the most distinguished personage of ancient times, born 1,567 A. C. In consequence of Pharaoh's inhuman decree, Moses was exposed by his mother on the banks of the Nile, and was found by the king's daughter, who compassionately adopted him, and thus saved his life. Before their departure from Egypt, and in their long and tedious journey of forty years through the wilderness, many extraordinary and supernatural events are recorded in the Bible, and ascribed to the miraculous interposition of the Lord in behalf of his people. During their wanderings in the desert, they received from their illustrious guide, with many other signal proofs of divine favour, a system of religion and laws, under the sanction of God.

9. The Mosaic code, though the most ancient that has been transmitted to posterity, contains the best maxims of legislative wisdom. It is an admirable summary of our various duties to God and man; and it enforces the observance of those duties by the powerful motives of gratitude, hope, and fear. It directs our adoration to one God, the author of all blessings; commands us to reverence his holy name; and denounces dreadful vengeance against those who shall transfer to idols, or to the creature, that worship which is due only to the Creator. To prevent the neglect of those sacred obligations, it ordains a Sabbath every week, to be set apart for rest, and for pious meditation on the works and the beneficence of God. Four of the statutes of the Mosaic code comprehend the principles of universal jurisprudence. 1. *Thou shalt not kill.* 2. *Thou shalt not commit adultery.* 3. *Thou shalt not steal.* 4. *Thou shalt not bear false witness.* They have formed the basis of criminal law in all civilized nations, and are essential to the good order of society. They conclude with an admonition against avarice, the incentive to the commission of all offences.

10. While Moses lived in Egypt he must have remarked the baneful effects of the abuse of unlimited power entrusted to priests. He therefore wisely separated the sacerdotal jurisdiction from the civil. The ministers of religion were not allowed to interfere in secular affairs. Their duties were confined to the worship of God; and their civil authority extended no farther than to take cognizance of such offences or trespasses as were immediately connected with religious worship. The care and direction of all secular concerns were committed to the *elders* of the people, who administered justice under the control of a supreme magistrate, emphatically styled a *judge*. In the judge was vested all power civil and military. It ap-

pears however that the high priest at length invaded the military prerogative of the judge.

11. Sensible of the ignorance and perverseness of the people under his care, Moses omitted no precepts nor instructions which he thought might tend to inform their minds, to regulate their conduct, to correct their vicious propensities, and to promote their welfare and security. He prescribed rules for their diet, for the preservation of their health, and for the treatment and cure of those diseases to which they were most liable. Having conducted the Israelites through many dangers and difficulties within sight of the promised land, and appointed Joshua his successor, Moses died in 1,447 A. C.

SECTION VIII.

THE HISTORY OF THE HEBREWS DURING THE GOVERNMENT OF THE JUDGES.

1. This period is extremely turbulent and sanguinary; a period of barbarism, ignorance, and anarchy. We know not certainly how the judges were chosen, nor what was the extent of their power. They appear to have been military chiefs, for they commanded armies, and some of them acquired fame by successful expeditions against the enemies of their country.

2. The chiefs or rulers of the Syrian kingdoms, principalities, or townships, had chosen no common leader, or generalissimo, nor digested any regular plan of defence against the Hebrews, who had been long hovering on the frontiers of Syria, and betrayed hostile intentions; consequently many of these petty states on both sides of the river Jordan were subdued, and the inhabitants massacred, before any league was formed for their mutual defence. At length they became apprehensive of utter destruction from their fierce and cruel invaders, and a general alliance was concerted among the remaining kings and chiefs of the country between the Jordan and the Mediterranean sea. Joshua twice attacked the combined army unexpectedly, and defeated it with great slaughter. Most of the inhabitants, except those who resided in impregnable cities on the sea coast, were put to the sword, or compelled to flee from the vengeance of their enemy. Their possessions were divided among the tribes of Israel; and thus the victorious Hebrews conquered and occupied the southern parts of Syria, called Judea or Canaan, and still known by the name of Palestine. Joshua having on many occasions received miraculous assistance in the perilous conquest of Canaan, and in the execution of the arduous and important offices of a government of incessant activity and energy, died in 1,439 A. C. leaving the Israelites in the quiet enjoyment of the country which the Lord had formerly promised to Abraham and his posterity.

3. After the conquest of Canaan the Hebrews did not continue long to observe and obey the institutions of Moses. They fell into apostacy and confusion. They were alternately harassed by intestine commotions, and reduced to temporary bondage by the nations which they had before conquered. When relieved from the miseries of a foreign yoke, they commonly became subject to the more grievous oppressions of domestic tyranny. But in the various changes of their

manners and fortunes, it is remarkable that some of their grossest idolatries, and severest afflictions, happened when the civil power and the authority of the priesthood were exercised by the same person.

4. After the death of Joshua the Israelites were governed by elders about 20 years. Then followed an anarchy of about 18 years, during which they were engaged in many successful and unsuccessful wars, and were often reduced to servitude.

After the government of the Hebrews had continued with little interruption, about 295 years, under twelve successive judges, in the form prescribed by Moses, Eli, the high-priest united in his person those powers and functions which, before his accession to the supreme magistracy, had been kept distinct. Eli appears to have been equally incapable of discharging the civil, the military, and the religious duties of his high offices. The people fell into idolatry, and were subjugated by an ancient nation called the Philistines. In a great battle with the Philistines the army of the Hebrews was routed with dreadful slaughter, and the two profligate sons of Eli were killed. The news of this disaster put an end to the life of Eli, after he had governed the Israelites forty years.

5. The next and last judge of the Hebrews was Samuel the prophet, 1,112 A. C. He brought back the people to a sense of their duty, and soon restored the departed glory of Israel by a great victory over the Philistines. They now recovered their liberty, and the cities which had been taken from them in former wars. Samuel was indefatigable in the administration of justice. When age had rendered him incapable of executing his laborious duties, he united his two sons with him in the administration of the government. But their evil conduct offended the people, who complained to Samuel that his sons were not worthy to succeed him as judges. They demanded a *king* to govern them. Samuel therefore assembled the people, and explained to them the extreme danger of changing their ancient form of government to that of a monarchy; but in vain. They persisted in their resolution, and a man named Saul was appointed the first king of the Hebrews, after the government by judges had subsisted, with some intermission, about 356 years, from Joshua to Saul.

SECTION IX.

RETROSPECT OF THE GOVERNMENT OF THE HEBREWS.

1. The advancement of Saul to the regal dignity was the second change made in the constitution given by Moses. The commonwealth was originally a *theocracy;* and the people acknowledged no other king but God. They paid respect to the priests, as the superintendents of his worship; and they obeyed the judges, as the interpreters of his laws, and the delegates of his power. The succession to the priesthood was fixed, being made hereditary in the family of Aaron. The office of ruler, or judge, being apparently left to the appointment of God, and determinable neither by the choice of the people, nor by lineal descent, gave access to disturbance, violence, and intrigue. Moses prevented any public commotion by naming and consecrating a successor to himself.

2. After the death of Joshua intestine divisions, or rather a spirit of licentiousness and rapine, threw the nation into a state of anarchy and confusion. As this disunion and civil disorder exposed them to the invasions of the adjacent states, military talents and success were regarded as infallible proofs of divine favour, and conferred upon any person so distinguished, the title and authority of judge. Gideon obtained many signal victories over the Philistines, the inveterate enemies of the Hebrews, and enriched his soldiers with plunder. Out of gratitude for his services, the people offered to make him and his posterity their rulers. Though he declined the name of judge, yet he retained the power, and appropriated to himself the most valuable part of the spoils of his enemies. His natural son Abimelech succeeded to the office of judge by force and violence. Sacred history does not inform us how the next two judges obtained their dignity. After them the supreme power was committed to one of Gilead's illegitimate issue, on account of his valour and military talents. Thus the office of judge continued to fluctuate till it was annexed to the high priesthood in the person of Eli, as has been related. The death of his two vicious sons interrupted the succession in his line. The office was lastly conferred on Samuel, whose unjust and rapacious sons were thought unworthy to succeed him. The people having received no permanent benefits from the administration either of judges or of priests, resolved to appoint a king to govern them. This political innovation was the result of levity and impatience rather than of mature deliberation. It neither gave stability to the new government nor prevented the evils of the old.

SECTION X.

REGAL GOVERNMENT OF THE HEBREWS.

1. The reign of Saul began about 1,091 A. C. He was a shepherd of lofty stature. The beginning of his reign was auspicious, and distinguished by a complete victory gained over the Ammonites, which made him popular among his subjects. But he incurred the displeasure of Samuel, the prophet, and his whole reign of 40 years, was a continued scene of foreign or domestic troubles. Being defeated in a battle with the Philistines in 1,051 A. C., he killed himself.

2. Two candidates preferred their claim to the vacant throne. Ish-bosheth, Saul's son, founded his pretensions on the right of immediate descent, and was supported by many of the tribes. David, a young shepherd, was famous for killing, with a stone thrown from a sling, a Philistine named Goliath, a man of gigantic size and strength. He had likewise been privately anointed by Samuel before the death of Saul; and his title, as of divine appointment, was therefore acknowledged by the powerful tribe of Judah. A civil war ensued, which lasted above seven years, and was terminated by the assassination of Ish-bosheth. All the tribes now submitted to David, and the kingdom became hereditary in his family, though the right of succession was still unsettled, and was transferable from one branch to another at the will of the reigning sovereign. This appears from Solomon's succession to the throne in preference to his elder brother.

3. The reign of David is illustrious and interesting. He enlarged

the bounds of Palestine by conquest, took Jerusalem, which he made the capital of his dominions, and enriched himself and his subjects with the spoils of his enemies. He revived among the people an attachment to religion by the institution of solemn ceremonies; and he introduced a taste for the arts, by inviting into the country able mechanics and artists for the completion of the grand edifices which he erected.

4. The latter part of David's reign was unfortunate. The kingdom was ravaged by pestilence, famine, and disastrous wars. His mind was harassed by domestic misfortunes. Some of his sons were disobedient and wicked. His favourite son Absalom raised a rebellion with a design to dethrone his father; but was defeated and slain. David caused his son Solomon to be crowned in 1,011 A. C., and died in 1,010 A. C., having reigned seven years and a half over Judah, and 33 years over all Israel.

5. The reign of Solomon presents a splendid view of the kingdom of Israel in the height of its prosperity, felicity, and glory, enjoying all the blessings of tranquillity in such a manner, and for such a length of time, as it never experienced in any former or subsequent period. It directed the councils of all the petty states between the Euphrates and the Mediterranean; and held the balance of power between the two great monarchies of Egypt and Assyria. Commerce flourished in a degree which, at that early period of the world, must appear extraordinary. The fleets of Israel, under the direction of Tyrian mariners, traded to the land of Ophir, which some suppose to be a district in Ethiopia, on the eastern coast of Africa. To this country they probably went by the Red Sea. By their lucrative voyages they augmented the wealth of the nation, which David had already enriched by the spoils of war. But this agreeable and prosperous condition did not continue long. Solomon, elated by uniform prosperity, set no bounds to his magnificence and luxury; and laid heavy taxes on the people to enable him to support his profuse expenditure. These burdensome imposts created disaffection in the minds of his subjects, and toward the end of his reign gave rise to a powerful faction, at the head of which was a haughty and impetuous young man called Jeroboam.

6. The most remarkable event in the reign of Solomon is the building of a magnificent temple at Jerusalem, which was completed in about seven years. The plan had been formed by David, and materials, workmen, and money, provided for its execution. This was probably the most superb and costly fabric that has been erected in ancient times.

The wisdom of Solomon is proverbial. The books of Proverbs and Ecclesiastes are ascribed to him, either as the author or collector; and abound with precepts and maxims that are applicable to every condition of life. But notwithstanding the superior knowledge for which Solomon was so justly celebrated, he appears to have been immersed in sensual pleasures. He had 700 wives of different countries and religions, beside 300 concubines! The allurements of those voluptuous women led him into effeminacy, and the excessive indulgence of the animal passions, and into the neglect of his important duties to God and his people; and their influence and superstitions at length drew him into idolatry. This illustrious and renowned monarch reigned 40 years, and died in 971 A. C., without leaving any memorial of his power.

7. With Solomon expired the grandeur and the tranquillity of the

Hebrews. Upon the accession of his son Rehoboam to the throne the faction of Jeroboam broke out into open rebellion, and terminated in the revolt of the ten tribes from their allegiance to the house of David. The tribes of Judah and Benjamin continued loyal to their lawful sovereign. The revolted tribes elected Jeroboam for their king, and the monarchy was split into the two separate kingdoms of Israel and Judah, 971 A. C.

8. The policy of Jeroboam produced a religious as well as a political separation. While the kings of Judah held the temple where the sacrifices were offered, and whither all the people were obliged to resort at stated times, they would always have an ascendancy over the kingdom of Israel. Jeroboam therefore thought it necessary to adopt some measures to prevent the frequent visits of his subjects to Jerusalem, the metropolis of the kingdom of Judah. The priests, the Levites, and all who were concerned in the ministry of religion, were firmly attached to the house of David; and Jeroboam supposed that they would naturally exert the influence which religion gave them over the minds of the people, to alienate their affection from his governments and to bring them back to their allegiance to their lawful sovereign. To prevent the obvious consequences of the continuance of his subjects in religious communion with the house of David and kingdom of Judah, Jeroboam sacrificed the interest of religion to his political motives. He built a new temple, and instituted a new priesthood; and thus produced a new schism among the followers of the Mosaical laws, which was never extinguished. Soon after this separation, the religion of the ten tribes under Jeroboam, deviating more and more from the original institutions of Moses, became a mixture of Judaism and Pagan idolatry.

9. After this memorable epoch in the history of the Israelites we find little more in their annals than such transactions and events as constitute the ordinary subjects of political records. The kingdom of Judah adhered with inflexible attachment to princes of the house of David; but usurpations in the kingdom of Israel were common. The history of the kingdoms of Israel and Judah during a period of almost 400 years, till the burning of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar, may, with the exception of a few intervals, be called the annals of disunion, vice, wars, massacres, servitude, famine, and pestilence. In this long period of general wickedness and misery, one of the most remarkable events is a great battle fought between Jeroboam and Abijam the successor of Rehoboam. The army of the former consisted of eight hundred thousand men, that of the latter of four hundred thousand. Jeroboam was defeated, and five hundred thousand of his men were killed in the battle.*

10. At last the kingdom of the ten tribes was extinguished. The people were transported into Assyria, and dispersed into different parts of the country, whence they never returned. The common people who were left in Canaan were intermixed with strangers; and from that mixture of different nations sprung the motley race, which were afterward known by the name of Samaritans. The sad catastrophe of the kingdom of Israel is described by the prophets in very pathetic terms. The infants and pregnant women were murdered with horrid barbarity. The men, who had not been slain in battle, nor had not escaped by flight, were dragged into bondage.

* The limits of this work do not admit a particular history of the generally uninteresting reigns from this period to the Babylonish captivity.

and their country was divided among the colonies of the conquerors. This event happened about 720 A. C., after the kingdom had subsisted about 254 years.

11. The tottering kingdom of Judah still continued to enjoy a precarious existence; invaded at different times by the Babylonians, rendered tributary, and finally subjugated; its metropolis and temple razed to their foundations by that mighty conqueror Nebuchadnezzar, 584 A. C.; and all the principal persons, and the most skilful artists of every kind, removed to Babylon. Thus ends the kingdom of Judea, after it had subsisted 468 years from the beginning of the reign of David, and 388 years from the separation of Judah and the ten tribes.

SECTION XI.

RESTORATION OF THE JEWS TO THEIR LIBERTY AND COUNTRY.

1. The privation of liberty, and the miseries of bondage seem to have brought the people of Israel and Judah to a sense of their past transgressions. Unable to resist the power of man, they now placed their sole confidence in the goodness and mercy of God. Neither promises nor threats could induce them to abandon their duty, and worship the idols of the heathens.

2. After they had been in captivity 70 years, Cyrus, king of Persia, having conquered Babylon, set them at liberty, and issued a decree, by which they were permitted to return to their own country, and to rebuild Jerusalem and the temple, 543 A. C. He restored to them all the sacred utensils which Nebuchadnezzar had taken away from the temple. He laid down a plan of the new temple, and ordered that the expense of erecting it should be paid out of the royal treasury. All who desired it were allowed to remain in their present places of residence, and to contribute as much as they pleased to the holy edifice.

It may be proper to observe in this place, that the Israelites who returned from the captivity of Babylon were then and ever afterward called *Jews*, because the tribe of Judah was the most powerful of all the tribes of Israel, and indeed almost the only one which was considerable after their restoration to their liberty and country.

3. Many of the Israelites chose to remain at Babylon. Those who returned to Palestine began the work of the temple with alacrity and vigour. Its progress suffered a temporary obstruction through the intrigues of their enemies, and the caprice of Cyrus's immediate successors. But in the beginning of the reign of Darius, the decree of Cyrus in favour of the Jews was ratified, and many new clauses were added for their effectual assistance and security. A particular charge was given to the governors of Syria and Samaria, not only to prevent any further obstruction of the work, but also to furnish supplies out of the tribute of those provinces for carrying it on with greater expedition; and it was declared that all persons who should act contrary to these instructions would be punished with death.

4. Darius continued to manifest his favour for the Jews, during the remainder of his long reign. Their privileges were confirmed to them by his son Xerxes. Their interest was still greater with

Artaxerxes, the Ahasuerus of scripture, through the influence of his queen Esther, a Jewess, and also through the services of her uncle Mordecai, who had discovered and frustrated a conspiracy against the king's life. From Artaxerxes, Ezra obtained very liberal donations, to be applied to the service of the temple; and full powers to govern the Jews as the divine will should direct. The like commission was also granted to Nehemiah, who rebuilt the walls of Jerusalem, and reformed many abuses both civil and religious.

After these two we find no more governors of Judea, which probably became subject to the governor of Syria, from whom the high-priests might immediately derive their authority. In this prosperous state were the Jews about 420 years before the christian era.

5. From this time we may ascribe most of the misfortunes which befel the Jewish nation to men who aspired at the sacerdotal dignity through ambition and avarice more than zeal for religion. For whole centuries the office of high-priest was the chief object of men's ambition. The candidates purchased the office from the Syrian governors, and retained it by means of money. Hence they oppressed the people with taxes that they might fulfil their pecuniary engagements. There was no energy among this degraded people, no dignity among the great, no foresight, no thought of pursuing proper measures against foreign invasion.

6. About 328 A. C. Alexander the great besieged Tyre, and was incensed against the Jews, because they had refused to supply his army with provisions during the siege. After the capture of Tyre he marched to Jerusalem with the intention of punishing the Jews for their disobedience of his orders. Jaddua the high-priest was ordered in a dream to meet the threatening conqueror in his pontifical robes, at the head of all the priests in their proper habits, and attended by the rest of the people dressed in white garments. Alexander was struck with this religious pomp, and approaching the high-priest with awful respect, embraced him with a religious kind of veneration. He told his attendants, who expressed surprise at his submissive behaviour, that he did not pay this profound respect to the high-priest, but to the God whose minister he was. Alexander then went to Jerusalem, and offered sacrifice in the temple to the God of the Jews. Upon his departure he granted to the Jews the freedom of their country, laws, and religion, and exempted them from paying tribute every seventh year. During his whole reign they enjoyed great tranquillity; but with him expired the prosperous state of their country. Judea was successively invaded and subdued by the Syrians and Egyptians, and the people were reduced to bondage.

7. The Jews kept their sabbath so rigidly that they would not fight on that day, nor even defend themselves although attacked by an enemy. Ptolemy king of Egypt, having invaded Judea, took advantage of this religious impediment. He entered Jerusalem on the sabbath-day without resistance, and carried away to Egypt a hundred thousand captives, 316 A. C.

After this time the Jews became the victims of foreign and domestic wars, and of horrid massacres.

8. About 198 A. C. Antiochus the great, king of Syria, took Jerusalem, plundered the temple, sold 40,000 Jews to the neighbouring nations, and established paganism throughout Judea. The sacrifices ceased, and there scarcely existed any external signs of religion.

This persecution roused the resentment and provoked the resistance of a priest named Mattathias, and his five sons surnamed Maccabeus. They all retired into the wilderness, and were soon joined by a great number of Jews who wished to avoid idolatry and religious persecution. An army was raised, of which the command was given to the eldest son of Mattathias, named Judas Maccabeus.

The deliverance of the Jews from the tyranny and oppression of the Greeks, by the uncommon talents, bravery, and patriotism of Judas Maccabeus, is an achievement as glorious perhaps as any performed by the most illustrious heroes of Greece and Rome. Having gained many signal victories, and delivered his country from bondage and idolatry, he was at last slain in battle, 157 A. C.

9. The brothers of Judas, pursuing their advantages with perseverance and exertion, established the independence of their country, and changed its republican government to a vigorous and flourishing monarchy.

10. John Hyrcanus, son of Simon Maccabeus, uniting in his person the offices of high-priest and generalissimo of the army, and possessing all the talents requisite for the pontifical, the military, and the regal offices, vanquished the enemies of his country, and firmly established his government. His sons assumed the title as well as the power of kings; and the high-priesthood remained in his family though not in the person of the monarch. The descendants of Hyrcanus are distinguished, in the history of the Jewish nation, by the appellation of the *Asmonean dynasty*, which continued about 126 years.

11. The unlucky dissensions of this family terminated ultimately in the conquest of Judea and the capture of Jerusalem by Pompey the great, and the subjection of the Jewish nation to the Romans, 59 A. C.

12. After this event the Jewish monarchy was re-established by the favour and under the protection of the Romans, who placed Herod the great, the son of Antipater, on the throne of David. This prince demolished the old temple of Jerusalem, and rebuilt it in a very magnificent manner. He reigned with great splendour, but with singular despotism and tyranny. He possessed great abilities, but was cruel and unjust both in his public and private transactions. His public life exhibits a continued scene of battles, massacres, and violence. He died in the first year of the birth of Christ, or the fourth of the vulgar era.

The reign of Herod was distinguished by a memorable event, which has proved more important in its consequences than any that has occurred since the creation of the world, *the birth of Jesus Christ, the author of the christian religion.*

13. Soon after the death of Herod, Judea was in reality reduced to a Roman province, and the governors were appointed by the emperors of Rome. In this condition it remained till the final extinction of the Jewish nation in the year of Christ 75, or of the vulgar era 72.

The rapine and cruelty of Florus, governor of Judea, caused a rebellion of the Jews, in which 150,000 persons are said to have perished, 69 of Christ, or A. D. 66.

The violent and sanguinary factions among the Jews destroyed incredible numbers of people of all ranks.

14. At length the Jewish nation was extinguished by the Romans, and its metropolis reduced to ashes by Titus the Roman general.

The last siege of Jerusalem was attended with scenes of carnage, famine, disease, and desperation, far more horrible than any to be found in the annals of human wickedness and misery. During the calamitous progress of the siege, Titus displayed many instances of humanity toward the sufferings of the besieged, and of his solicitude for the preservation of the city and temple; but in vain. Their doom was predestinated by the irrevocable degree of the Almighty. The magnificent temple of the Jews perished in the general wreck of the nation, and not one stone was left upon another, 75 of Christ, or A. D. 72.

According to a moderate calculation the number of persons who perished by violent deaths during the last war in Judea amounted to more than one million four hundred thousand, besides many who died of grief and famine.

Since that time the descendants of those who survived the dissolution of the Jewish nation have been wandering about the world, the objects of hatred and contempt rather than of kindness and commiseration. In all countries where they have been permitted to reside, they have been excluded from the participation of certain political privileges which the people of those countries enjoy.

SECTION XII.

THE STATE OF LEARNING AND COMMERCE AMONG THE JEWS.

1. Of all the interesting prospects which history opens to our view, the progressive advancement of the human mind, in the improvement of its faculties, is the most agreeable, and the most worthy of our attention and regard. The brilliant and destructive exploits of conquerors may dazzle for a while; but the silent labours of the student and the artist, of the architect and the husbandman, which embellish the earth and convert it into a paradise, confer permanent benefits on mankind, and promote their prosperity and happiness. The arts and sciences distinguish the civilized man from the savage; and the investigation of their origin and progress would constitute the noblest attribute of history. How unfortunate it is, that the ancient historians have almost neglected so interesting and pleasing a subject. All the knowledge which we can obtain concerning the origin and progress of learning must be gleaned from unconnected fragments and scattered notices, laboriously collected from a multifarious and confused mass of trivial particulars.

2. The period of the scriptural history includes the whole space of time from the creation of the world to the subversion of the Babylonian monarchy, or about 3,457 years. During this long succession of ages a great variety of political, civil, and religious institutions had been invented; the human mind had been much improved in some countries; agriculture had been skilfully practised; the surface of the earth had been adorned with large cities and stately edifices. Of these interesting subjects, few particulars have been faithfully transmitted to posterity, except such as relate to Jewish laws and institutions, some scattered hints respecting ancient commerce, and some excellent specimens of writing in the Prophets and Psalms. In those venerable monuments of antiquity, the sacred writings, we trace the Israelites from the patriarchal ages, through the turbulent times of barbaric ignorance, to a considerable degree

of civilization and refinement. Of their civil and religious institutions we have a clear and explicit account; of their knowledge of the arts and sciences we possess little information. The Jews do not seem to have been a scientific or philosophical nation in any period of their history. They appear to have been sufficiently skilful in the arts of necessity and conveniency; but not to have made much proficiency in those of luxury and ornament. Some admirable specimens of literature are presented in the scriptures, especially in the writings of the Prophets, and in the Psalms. In the historical books we observe plainness of style and conciseness of narrative, and uncommon perspicuity in the didactical pieces. The writings of the prophets are chiefly poetical, very different, and all originals. Most of them display sublime sentiments, expressed with energy of diction, and decorated with oriental imagery.

3. In the patriarchal ages commerce was so far known and exercised that gold and silver were used as the medium by which it was regulated. In the tumultuous times which succeeded the patriarchal we obtain very little information concerning the state of commerce. We have no reason to think that commerce was ever in a flourishing state among the Jews. In times of remote antiquity the mechanic arts and various kinds of manufactures had made considerable progress in some countries. This is manifest from the curious and rich materials of the tabernacle and of the high-priest's garments. The Israelites, no doubt, brought from Egypt much of their knowledge of arts, sciences, and literature; for the Egyptians had, from time immemorial, been gradually advancing in learning and civilization; and, during the greater part of the period now under contemplation, were famous for the excellence of their civil policy, the extent and population of their cities, the magnificence of their public edifices, and the flourishing state of agriculture. In all these respects the Egyptians were distinguished above all the contemporary nations of antiquity.

CONCLUSION.

1. In taking a retrospective view of the various nations which have successively appeared and flourished upon the grand theatre of this world, and have at length vanished and sunk into oblivion, their rise, progress, and decline, arrest our attention, and excite our curiosity and compassion. The ignorance, avarice, wickedness, and ambition of mankind may be assigned as the general causes of the dissolution of nations. Many of those kingdoms and states once so great and flourishing have not only disappeared, but even their names and all remembrance of them must have perished, if they had not been preserved and perpetuated in the historical records of scripture. In them, however, we behold the transitory and fading splendour of all human glory, and a diminutive picture of every thing which the world calls great; as eminence of genius and learning, military honour and fame, extent of power and dominion, political wisdom, the faculty of eloquence. Finally, we draw this sad conclusion, that history is little more than a dismal record of the crimes and the calamities of the human race!*

* For a very copious and useful chronological table of the history of the Bible see Calmet's Dictionary of the Bible, vol. II. This table is an epitome of the history of the Jews, and will be particularly useful to theological students.

ELEMENTS

OF

GENERAL HISTORY,

ANCIENT AND MODERN;

BEING A CONTINUATION,

TERMINATING AT THE

DEMISE OF HIS MAJESTY KING GEORGE III., 1,820.

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CONCORD, N. H.

PRINTED BY ISAAC HILL.

1824.

ADVERTISEMENT.

As the learned author of the Elements of General History, professors Tytler, (by courtesy lord Woodhouselee,) lived until the year 1,813, it is much to be regretted that he did not bring his history down to a later period.

In the present volume nothing further has been attempted than to continue the history from the point at which the professor left it, in the same concise style, and with as much attention to the original method and design, as could be rendered consistent with the extraordinary nature of the facts and incidents to be recorded.

To this end it has been found necessary to carry on the history of Great Britain and Ireland from the period of the death of queen Anne;

That of the Southern Continental States of Europe, from the end of the reign of Louis XIV;

And that of the Northern States from the death of Charles XII. of Sweden, and Peter the First of Russia.

PART THIRD.

MODERN HISTORY.

SECTION I.

FRANCE FROM THE DEATH OF LEWIS XIV. 1,715, TO THE PEACE OF VIENNA, 1,738.

1. The last years of the very long and splendid reign of Lewis XIV. were clouded by many severe domestic misfortunes, and a great change in the sentiments and manners of the sovereign and his court. A mystical religion became the vogue, accompanied with a gravity of demeanour approaching to prudery. The amiable Fenelon fell into these errors, which were countenanced by madame de Maintenon, who had been privately married to the king, and seems to have possessed his confidence in a high degree.

2. On the king's demise (see Sect. LXIV.) the crown descended to his grandson, Lewis XV., an infant, only five years old. In a very short space of time, losses had occurred in the royal family, so strange and unexpected, as to afford ground for suspicion, greatly to the prejudice of the duke of Orleans, nephew of Lewis XIV. Three heirs to the crown, the Dauphin, his son the duke of Burgundy, and his grandson the duke of Bretagne, had all died within the short space of eleven months, during the years 1,711, 1,712, leaving, to intercept the claims and pretensions of the duke of Orleans, only the duke of Berry and one infant, apparently of a feeble and delicate constitution, and whose own life had also been in danger. The king of Spain had been previously compelled, according to the spirit of the celebrated treaty of the Pyrenees, formally to renounce his claims to the succession, notwithstanding his near relationship to the crown of France. Lastly, the duke of Berry died, May 1,714, at the early age of 18.

3. Fortunately for the reputation of the duke of Orleans, (who, though of loose morals, seems to have possessed too generous a heart for such base deeds), the infant dauphin not only lived to become king, but to survive the duke himself, many years. Nor were the suspicions which had been raised by the sudden deaths of so many heirs to the crown, strong enough to prevent the nation reposing the highest confidence in the duke, by suffering the kingly power to pass into his hands, as sole regent, during the minority; though contrary to the express appointment of the late king, who is said to have wisely observed, when for form's sake he executed his will, that it would have but little weight with the people, or the parliament, as soon as his eyes were closed. The nation willingly acceded

to the disposition of the parliament, in setting aside the claims of the illegitimate princes, whom the will of Lewis XIV. favoured; and the duke of Orleans was careful to fix that body in his interest, by promising to restore to it its full power of remonstrance, which had been greatly restrained during the preceding reign.

4. Lewis XIV. had left his kingdom so incumbered with debt, and so surrounded by mortified, jealous, and exasperated neighbours, eager to recover what had been taken from them during the triumphant wars of that monarch, that it became an object of the highest importance to the regent, for the nation's sake, as well as his own, to maintain peace as far as he could with foreign states. To this end, though contrary to any former course of things, he prudently endeavoured to form alliances with the courts of *St. James's* and *Vienna*. In the former case the advantages were similar and mutual. By the treaty of Utrecht, England stood engaged to secure the French crown to the regent, in case Lewis XV. should die without issue; and to keep her steady to this engagement, it was easy for the duke to comply with the wishes of the whig government of England, in withholding all encouragement from the pretender.

5. However pacific the views of the regent might be, Spain seemed to present an obstacle to the repose and tranquillity of Europe. There a minister of a very different disposition had obtained the chief management of affairs, who appeared bent upon disturbing both the French and English governments, in order to recover what had been taken from Spain by the treaty of Utrecht, especially in Italy; to deprive the duke of Orleans of the regency, in favour of the king his master, and to seat the pretender on the throne of Great Britain, with the aid of Russia and Sweden. Such were the plans of the celebrated *Alberoni;* originally the son of a gardener; afterwards in the lowest stations in the church of Placentia, but who had raised himself, by an extraordinary display of genius and talent, to the highest degree of credit and influence at the court of Philip V., with the exalted rank of cardinal.

6. These movements indeed on the part of Spain, were not in themselves altogether unfavourable to the views of the regent; in better securing to him the good will of England and Austria, always prepared to be jealous of too close an intimacy between the courts of Paris and Madrid. Some historians have even gone so far as to suppose it to have been a settled contrivance to impose on the former two courts, but certainly without sufficient grounds.

7. It seems to have been a great oversight in the negotiations at Utrecht, not to have endeavoured more effectually to reconcile the courts of Austria and Spain. The former, after the treaty, remained jealous of the occupation of the Spanish throne by Philip; while the latter could not fail to be aggrieved and offended at being made to contribute to the indemnification of Charles VI., by a very considerable dismemberment of its dominions, without any suitable or adequate remuneration.

8. To counteract the projects of Alberoni, the regent entered into an alliance with England and the United States; entirely sacrificing to the former the interests of the pretender, who was to be sent out of France. But the Spanish minister was not to be deterred by this triple alliance and confederacy against him. Having watched his opportunity of a war between the emperor of Germany and the Porte, he suddenly commenced hostilities; and, with no small degree of treachery, in the course of the years 1,717 and 1,718, succeeded in

wresting from Austria the island of Sardinia, and from the duke of Savoy that of Sicily, thus violating, in the most direct and glaring manner, the solemn treaty of Rastadt, so lately concluded. In consequence of these proceedings, and in order to remedy, as it would seem, the defects and omissions of the original convention, Austria was admitted a party to the alliance between France, England, and Holland, with a view to bring about a reconciliation between the emperor and Spain, upon the basis of the following arrangement: that the former should renounce all claims to the Spanish throne in favour of Philip, while the latter should surrender to the emperor the Netherlands, the duchy of Milan, and the kingdom of Naples, assigned to him by the treaty of Utrecht and the quadruple alliance. That the duke of Savoy should yield Sicily to Austria, receiving in exchange the island of Sardinia from Spain; and that the eldest son of Philip by his second marriage, don Carlos, should be secured in the reversion of the duchies of Parma and Placentia, and the grand duchy of Florence, to be holden as male fiefs under the emperor, and on no occasion whatever to be united to the crown of Spain.

9. There never was a period perhaps in which it would have been more difficult to unravel the policy of these several courts. It was certainly a strange thing for the emperor to agree, in any manner, to admit the Spaniards into Italy, of which he had so much reason to be distrustful; much more to assist in doing so. While those very terms, which were undoubtedly introduced to gratify the Spanish minister, in this particular respect, so far from securing the ready consent of the court of Madrid, only induced it to make fresh efforts. The predominance of France and England, however, soon became so conspicuous, as to compel Philip to subscribe to the articles of the alliance, and even to dismiss his favourite minister, the cause of all the grievances of which the allied powers had to complain. In 1,720 Austria took possession of Sicily, and Victor Amadeus II. transferred the seat of his government to the island of Sardinia.

10. In the month of December, 1,723, in the 50th year of his age, the regent duke of Orleans died very suddenly in a fit of apoplexy. He was a prince of shining talents, and of great taste and spirit; but dissolute in his habits of life to a most disgraceful pitch of extravagance. He did not indeed suffer his pleasures and licentious connexions to interfere greatly with the discharge of his public duties, but they tarnished his fame, and in all likelihood shortened his life. He had the misfortune in his youth to be put into the hands of a most unprincipled tutor, the Abbe Dubois, who continued with him to the last year of his life, dying only four months before him, a cardinal of Rome, and prime minister of France! The elevation of this profligate man to such high stations in the church and state, did more mischief to the cause of religion and morality, than the personal vices of the regent, who, amidst a thousand foibles, had some great and brilliant qualities.

Neither Austria nor Spain were satisfied with what had been done for them, and strong remonstrances were prepared on the part of the dukes of Parma and Placentia, the grand duke of Tuscany, and the pope, against the grants in reversion to the Infant of Spain. Attempts were made to reconcile the two courts more effectually by a congress, summoned to meet at Cambray, in the year 1,724, under the joint mediation of France and England, but ineffectually: in 1,729 another, but more private attempt, had better success; it was undertaken by a very singular and eccentric character, the baron, or

duke, de Ripperda, Dutch minister at the court of Madrid, who succeeded so far, through his own intrigues, and the venality of the imperial court, as to give umbrage to the governments of France and England; the latter soon saw the necessity of guarding, by a counter-treaty, framed at Hanover, against the effects of Ripperda's interposition.

11. Secret articles were said to be signed and executed, to recover for Spain the fortress of Gibraltar and the island of Minorca, to seat the pretender on the throne of Great Britain, to forward the emperor's views with regard to the Ostend East India Company, and to cement the alliance by marriages which would have laid a foundation for the reunion of the Austrian and Spanish dominions under one sovereign. Ripperda himself is said to have communicated these secret articles to the English government: he was made to pay dear for his treachery.

As the empress of Russia had acceded to the treaty of *Vienna*, concluded by Ripperda, and France and England had taken steps to secure Holland and Prussia on their side, Europe seemed to be threatened with another general war, but the timely death of the empress, in 1,727, and the defection of Prussia, gave a turn to affairs, and left room for the renewal of the congress of Cambray, transferred in the year 1,728, to Soissons, where fresh endeavours were made to establish a solid and permanent peace. As the emperor, however, insisted on the accession of all the contracting powers, to the Pragmatic Sanction, which was to secure to his heirs general the undivided succession to all his territories and dominions, the other courts withdrew; and in November, 1,729, concluded at Seville in Spain a separate treaty, in which it was agreed, between France, England, and Spain, to support the pretensions of the Infant to the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Tuscany. To this treaty Holland was soon after brought to accede, on the condition that her rights should be protected against the new East India Company, established by the emperor at Ostend, which was considered as contrary to the treaty of Westphalia, and manifestly injurious both to England and the United States. The treaty of Seville was settled so totally without the concurrence of the emperor, that his name was not even mentioned in it; which, as might be reasonably expected, gave great offence. In the year 1,731, however, England, and in 1,732 Holland, acceded to the wishes of the emperor, in regard to the Pragmatic Sanction, on condition that the archduchess, who should succeed to the empire, should not marry any Bourbon, or other prince or potentate, capable of disturbing the peace of Europe. The Ostend Company was given up; the Infant don Carlos took possession of the duchies of Parma and Placentia on the death of the last of the Farnese family, and the grand duke of Tuscany acknowledged him as his heir. A treaty between England, Holland, and the empire, called the second treaty of Vienna, was signed and executed at the latter place, which may be said to have terminated all the differences arising out of the Spanish succession, by which the greater part of Europe had been kept in a state of agitation for the space of thirty years.

While these things were in agitation, Victor Amadeus, embarrassed, as it is said, with the counter engagements he had entered into with Austria and Spain, thought fit to resign his crown to his son, Charles Emmanuel, but soon repenting of what he had done, prepared to reascend his abdicated throne; this rash and injudicious step

was the cause of his imprisonment, and probably of his death, which happened in November, 1,732.

12. In 1,733, France became involved again in a war, both the origin and end of which had something remarkable in them. The throne of the elective kingdom of Poland becoming vacant by the demise of Augustus of Saxony, two competitors appeared on the stage; the son of the deceased king, and Stanislaus Lescinsky, who had with great credit previously occupied it through the interposition of Charles XII. of Sweden, (see Sect. LXVI.) and whose daughter was married to Lewis XV. The emperor of Germany, the Czarina, and the king of Prussia, espoused the cause of the former, France supported the latter, and commenced hostilities against the emperor, by detaching the king of Sardinia from his interests, and occupying Lorrain, whose duke was engaged to marry the emperor's daughter. But the principal seat of war was in Italy, where the French, Spanish, and Sardinian combined troops obtained many advantages, and ultimately succeeded in seating don Carlos, duke of Parma, &c., on the throne of the Two Sicilies, to which he had been particularly invited by the Neapolitans. The Austrian court had been very supine, in not guarding better against the manifest designs of the queen of Spain, mother of don Carlos. He was crowned king by the title of Charles the third, July 3, 1,735. Naples was subdued in 1,734, and Sicily in the year following. During this contest, the celebrated prince Eugene, though then past seventy years of age, had the command of the imperial army on the Rhine; but he had great cause to be offended with the situation in which he was placed; the French being stronger; England not to be roused to assist him, through the pacific views of the minister Walpole; and having, both at court and in the army, many rivals and secret enemies. His only consolation was, the extreme and enthusiastic attachment of the soldiers, the very remembrance of which, as he feelingly acknowledges in his own memoirs, often afterwards drew tears from his eyes.

13. Matters were brought to an accommodation, through the mediation of the maritime powers, (who, undoubtedly, appear in this case to have been guilty of misleading the emperor,) by a convention signed at Vienna, in November, 1,738. By this treaty some very extraordinary appointments took place. Stanislaus, the deposed king of Poland, father-in-law to the king of France, obtained, keeping his kingly title, the duchies of Lorrain and Bar, to revert to France after his death, which did not take place till the year 1,766. In exchange for what was thus bestowed upon Stanislaus, the duke of Lorrain obtained the grand duchy of Tuscany, the reversion of which had been guaranteed to the Infant don Carlos, but who was, by the same treaty, acknowledged king of the Two Sicilies, surrendering in his turn to the emperor, his two duchies of Parma and Placentia; Vigevano and Novaro were given to the king of Sardinia; and to the emperor, the Milanese, the Mantuan, and Parma.

On the conclusion of the peace, France acceded to the Pragmatic Sanction. The kings of Spain and Sardinia showed some reluctance to agree to the terms of the treaty, but were induced to sign it in the course of the year 1,729. It is certainly very remarkable, that, in consequence of a dispute about the crown of Poland, not only the emperor should have lost almost all his possessions in Italy, but France should have been able to recover a province of which she had been deprived for the space of nearly a thousand years, and so

situated as to render it one of the most splendid and gratifying acquisitions she could possibly have contemplated.

SECTION II.

ENGLAND FROM THE ACCESSION OF THE HOUSE OF HANOVER, 1,714, TO THE END OF THE REIGN OF GEORGE THE FIRST, 1,727.

1. Queen Anne was no sooner dead, [Part II. Sect. LXIV. § 20.] than steps were taken for the immediate acknowledgment of her successor, George Lewis, elector of Brunswick Luneburg, pursuant to the several acts of parliament, for securing the protestant succession, in exclusion of the pretender, the house of Savoy, and, in fact, every catholic branch of the royal family of England; many of whom were more directly in the line of inheritance than the protestant descendants of James the first, in whom the crown was now vested; not, however, without due regard to that hereditary line which may be said to have occupied the throne from the time of Egbert. The late union with Scotland, 1,706, [see as above] was calculated to suppress any general desire, on the part of the people there, to place themselves again under a distinct sovereign.

2. The accession of George I., to judge from the addresses of the two houses of parliament, and the general tranquillity manifested in all parts of the three kingdoms, at the time of his proclamation, would seem to have been acceptable to the nation at large. Nor was the French king long before he openly acknowledged his right and title to the crown of Great Britain, though the sincerity of his declarations in favour of a protestant succession, and the exclusion of the house of Stuart, was not too confidently relied upon. The states of Holland were, probably, entirely cordial, both in their expressions of congratulation, and promises of support, according to existing engagements to that effect, as guarantees of the Hanoverian succession. From the king of Prussia, and various other princes and states of Germany, his majesty also received the strongest assurances of support; yet so little are these courtesies to be trusted, that it is more than probable, from circumstances since come to light, that at this very moment, with regard to the continental states in general, he had more enemies than friends.

3. His entrance into his new dominions, however, September, 1,714, was hailed in a manner that could not fail to be extremely gratifying to the king, though it soon became manifest, and could not well have been otherwise, that there were many secret heart-burnings and disappointed hopes, to prevent that perfect unanimity which was most desirable on an occasion so important. The tories, some of whom had evidently been tampering with the pretender, during the last years of the queen's reign, were greatly discomfited, and in a very marked manner discountenanced by the king himself. The whigs enjoyed a triumph. The pretender's friends in general stood confounded, not only by the low estate of his cause, but by the perplexity of their own feelings, with regard to his more direct hereditary claims to the crown. In this dilemma, it is not to be wondered that several should refuse to take the oaths of allegiance and abjuration. Scotland also, in part at least, bewailed its lost independency

by the act of union, which some were forward to have dissolved again; and the papists, being very numerous in Ireland, rendered the peace of that kingdom constantly precarious.

4. The person, manners, and deportment of the new sovereign, were not such as immediately to conciliate his British subjects; but he was by no means destitute of kingly virtues and accomplishments of a more solid and important description. Having delivered the ministerial government of the realm into the hands of the whigs, it was not long before serious proceedings were entered into, by the new administration, against the authors and advisers of the late peace and treaty of Utrecht; and articles of impeachment for high treason exhibited against the earl of Oxford, viscount Bolingbroke, the duke of Ormond, earl of Strafford, and others. The duke of Ormond, and lord Bolingbroke, absconded; the earl of Oxford, with greater magnanimity, stood upon his defence, and though imprisoned for a considerable time, was finally acquitted. Under a pretence of the church being in danger, which seems to have been adopted as a sort of watch-word by the tory party and jacobites, (for so the adherents of the pretender were called,) riots and tumults took place in many parts of the kingdom; in consequence of which, the king was empowered by parliament (1,715,) to raise fresh forces, and the *habeas corpus* act was suspended, for the more speedy apprehension and detention of suspected persons.

5. In Scotland, however, notwithstanding great precautions to the contrary, a rebellion actually broke out in the month of August, 1,715, headed by the earl of Mar, late secretary of state for that kingdom; and in September, the pretender's standard was erected at a place called Brae Mar, though the pretender himself did not arrive in Scotland till the December following; before which time a severe action had taken place at Dunblain, between the contending armies, commanded on the side of the English by the duke of Argyle; and on the side of the Scotch by the earl of Mar. The pretender, on reaching the shores of Scotland, was received with regal honours, and addresses were presented to him from many corporate bodies; even his coronation was fixed to take place on the 23d day of January. But during the course of these transactions, the chief officers of his army, as soon after appeared, were but too well convinced of their perfect inability to terminate the contest successfully, many things having fallen out to the disappointment of their hopes; particularly the death of Lewis XIV., who, notwithstanding his protestations in favour of the house of Hanover, had secretly favoured their cause. The English army, besides, since the battle of Dunblain, had been considerably reinforced, by Dutch as well as English troops. This being the case, as we learn from an account given by the earl of Mar himself, they felt compelled to abandon their enterprise for the present; and in order to check the pursuit of the enemy, eager to seize the person of the pretender, they persuaded the latter to leave the kingdom again, and return to France; the earl of Mar himself accompanying him. They were followed, afterwards, by many leaders of the rebels, who, in a most extraordinary manner, escaped the English vessels stationed to intercept their passage; but some of those, who had previously fallen into the hands of the English, as the earl of Derwentwater, and others, were impeached, and pleading guilty, executed. Many escaped by an act of grace. Thus was the rebellion, in a great measure, subdued; congratulatory addresses poured in upon the sovereign, and a day of

public thanksgiving was appointed to be observed throughout the kingdom.

6. The whigs, however, apprehending that their opponents, in a new parliament, might regain their ascendancy, and be able to carry into execution their projects against the existing government, brought in a bill, (since called the septennial bill,) for enlarging the continuance of parliament, whereby the term was extended from *three* to *seven* years, unless sooner dissolved by the king, and to begin with the parliament then chosen and assembled; a most important measure, and accidentally originating with a party more friendly in repute to the rights and liberty of the people than the step itself would seem to imply. Abstracted from all temporary or party considerations, it may justly be regarded as a very delicate and important point in politics, to determine either a *maximum* or *minimum*, with regard to the duration of such elective assemblies as the English house of commons. Frequent elections being essentially necessary to preserve the people from any gross neglect of their interests by their representatives, or any unconstitutional encroachment on their liberty, as well as to remedy abuses; but too frequent elections, having evidently the ill effect of keeping up party divisions, feuds, and animosities, interrupting business, and lessening the confidence of foreign states in the measures of government. Too frequent elections, besides, by bringing independent candidates so much the oftener into a contest with the treasury, (for government must have, and will always endeavour to exert, a powerful influence,) may in time deter such persons from a conflict so disadvantageous; unless, in short, government influence in elections should be entirely done away, the more frequently they recur, the more they will harass and weaken private independence. (See Burke's works.) It was undoubtedly a bold step for any parliament, chosen under the popular triennial act of king William, to enlarge its own continuance; nor was it ill urged by a member of the house of peers, as an argument against the bill, that, "if the existing house of commons continued themselves beyond the time for which they were chosen, they were no more the representatives of the people, but a house of their own making." The whigs, however, had this excuse, that the proposed measure was calculated to suppress a rebellion, or prevent the renewal of one; not raised, like other rebellions, under a pretence of liberty, but, in their eyes, clearly tending towards slavery, in the establishment of a catholic prince, and the destruction of the protestant interests, both in church and state. It was well that they assigned any limit to their continuance, since a mere repeal of the triennial act would have left the term undefined. The bill was finally passed, after much opposition in the lower house, and a strong protest on the part of many lords in the upper, by a majority in the commons of 264 to 121; and it has continued the law of parliament ever since.

7. In the year 1,717, an unpleasant dispute occurred, affecting the church, and which seems to have terminated the sittings of convocation. Dr. Hoadley, bishop of Bangor, gave occasion to it, by a sermon preached before the king, March 31, on "The Nature of the Kingdom of Christ," and by a publication entitled, "a Preservative against the Principles and the Practices of the Non-jurors." The bishop had been a warm friend to the revolution, and many of the principles he asserted were undoubtedly directed rather against popery than our own establishment; while, in opposition to the *jure*

divino pretence of the tories, he declaimed violently against every abuse of authority, at the hazard of impairing all church discipline, derogating from the regal supremacy in "causes ecclesiastical," and annulling the force of all civil sanctions whatsoever in matters of religion; on these grounds the convocation took the matter up, but without much effect. It was dissolved in the midst of the controversy, and has never sat to do business since. Those who chiefly attacked the bishop in print, were Dr. Snape of Eton, dean Sherlock, Dr. Cannon, (who undertook to vindicate the proceedings of convocation,) Dr. Potter, afterwards archbishop of Canterbury, and Mr. William Law. Perhaps no antagonist entered the lists, with more decorum of manners, or integrity of disposition, than the latter, who, in several letters addressed to the bishop, plainly proved that, however innocent his intentions might be, his arguments and expressions plainly tended to the subversion of all church authority, and the encouragement of a most fatal indifference to every particular form of worship and belief. Which, considering the high situation he held in the church, and the duties attached to that station, could not but appear in the light of an abandonment of those principles, which alone could have placed him there. Such, however, was the state of parties at the time, that the bishop was advanced to a higher post in the church, and some of the most forward of his opponents dismissed from their employments about the court.

8. In 1,718 George the first became a party to the celebrated *quadruple* alliance, formed to counteract the plans and projects of the Spanish minister Alberoni, (Sect. I. § 8.) who, while his views were chiefly directed towards his native country, Italy, managed to involve almost the whole of Europe in contests and jealousies, exceedingly perplexing, and inimical to the peace and tranquillity of many states. Distant as Sweden was, geographically, from the seat and object of his manœuvres, yet, in order to prevent any interruption from England, he had nearly instigated the celebrated Charles XII. to invade the latter country, for the purpose of restoring the pretender to the throne of his ancestors. His agents and accomplices, however, were fortunately detected in time to prevent the rupture between the two courts. George I. was no favourite, either with the Swedish monarch, or his celebrated competitor, the czar of Muscovy.

9. The chief object of the quadruple alliance, as has been before hinted, was to reconcile and adjust the rival claims and pretensions of the courts of Vienna and Madrid. Alberoni had endeavoured, during the war between the emperor and the Turks, to get possession of Sardinia, Sicily, and other places, for the sons of the queen of Spain, a princess of Parma, his native country. He had proposed, in short, to recover for Spain all that had been conceded and surrendered by the treaty of Utrecht. (Part II. Sect. LXIV.) The interference of England, in sending a fleet to the Mediterranean, to support the rights of the emperor, according to treaty, at the very moment when the Spanish forces were prepared to invade Sicily and the kingdom of Naples, exceedingly exasperated the cardinal minister, and induced him to heap reproaches on the British government for their precipitate proceedings, pretending that the Spaniards had in every instance manifested a favourable disposition towards England; though nothing was more notorious than that her merchants had been scandalously ill-treated by them, and her minister at Madrid overwhelmed with complaints to that effect. The latter, indeed, stated afterwards in the house of commons, that he had pre-

sented, at the least, five-and-twenty memorials to the court of Spain upon the subject, without redress; and notwithstanding all these indignities, and to evince the desire of his government not too precipitately to commence hostilities, had communicated to the Spanish minister the numbers and force of the English fleet before it sailed, in order to convince him of its superiority, and deter him from the measures he had in view. The defeat of the Spanish fleet, off Sicily, by admiral Byng, August 1,718, ruined all the projects of Alberoni; he soon after fell into disgrace, and was precipitated from the exalted station he had attained to by the strength of his genius; which, whatever his enemies might allege, certainly bespoke a keen and vigilant statesman, and an able minister, as far as regarded the interests of the country he served, both foreign and domestic.

10. Though so severe an action had taken place in the Mediterranean, between the English and Spanish fleets in the month of August, war was not formally declared at London till the close of the year 1,718, (Dec. 29.) between which period and the final disgrace and retirement of the Spanish minister, he had attempted two measures of deep revenge, one on the power and person of the duke of Orleans, regent of France, and the other on the government of George I. of England, by an invasion of his dominions in favour of the pretender, and under the direction of the expatriated duke of Ormond. It is remarkable that these projects were severally detected by the French regent and British monarch, in time to admit of their warning each other of the danger in which they were respectively placed, and of offering the assistance which the cases required.

11. The war so suddenly and unexpectedly excited between Great Britain and Spain, was in no long course of time brought to an issue very honourable and glorious to the former; admiral Byng, with his fleet in the Mediterranean, having so managed matters as fully to accomplish all the purposes of his mission, putting the emperor into possession of Sicily, and the duke of Savoy of Sardinia, under circumstances of peculiar difficulty and embarrassment, owing to the obstinacy, backed by the bravery of the Spaniards, the hindrances arising from a succession of governors at Naples, and the loss of time in the necessary communications with his own court and that of Vienna. No man, perhaps, ever discharged so delicate and arduous a commission, with more applause on the part of his own country and her allies, or with fewer complaints and less obloquy on the part of his opponents. The latter indeed, in this case, rather joined in the commendations so liberally bestowed on him by his employers, at the termination of the short but vigorous contest. When he waited on the king at Hanover, his majesty is said, very justly, to have observed to him, that he had found out the secret of obliging his enemies as well as his friends; alluding to the very honourable terms in which the Spaniards had expressed themselves concerning him, both as an officer and negotiator. He was most deservedly advanced to the peerage, by the title of viscount Torrington, and had other appropriate honours bestowed upon him. Towards the close of the year 1,719, the king of Spain acceded to the terms of the quadruple alliance; his minister, on the urgent and joint demands of the king of England, the emperor, and regent of France, having been previously dismissed, and banished the kingdom of Spain.

12. In the course of the year 1,719, a bill was brought into parliament by the ministry, for limiting the number of the peers. It

originated with Lord Sunderland, who is said to have had in view to restrain the power of the prince of Wales, whom he had offended, when he should succeed to the throne. After much debate, and it is supposed almost entirely through the influence of Sir Robert Walpole, it was rejected by a large majority, 269 to 177.

13. In 1,720 the king was much occupied in affording protection and support to the protestant interests abroad, and in endeavouring to restore peace and tranquillity amongst the northern states. Sweden, Denmark, Prussia, and Poland, reaped the fruits of his mediation; but the czar resisted his proposals, and, for some time, continued to act against Sweden, in defiance of the combined operations of that country and England. He at last, however, consented to accept the mediation of France, and peace was established between Russia and Sweden, by the treaty of Nystadt, 1,721.

14. Nothing occurred in this reign more disastrous in its consequences, or more strange and extravagant in its origin and progress, than the celebrated *South Sea* scheme, whereby, though immense fortunes were rapidly made by some, many individuals were ruined, and public credit alarmingly shaken. The details of this curious speculation and bubble (as it has been but too justly denominated,) it would be exceedingly uninteresting to enter into, in a work like the present, and they are easily to be found elsewhere; but such an instance of public infatuation, illusion, and credulity, was only to be matched by the Mississippi scheme, projected by Law, during the regency in France, which had a similar effect, and which was most probably the model from which Sir John Blunt, the projector of the South Sea scheme, took the hint. The French system has been supposed to have had something more substantial in it, with respect to the exclusive trade to Louisiana. But the South Sea scheme had certainly commercial advantages attached to it. The two schemes, it must be admitted, supply the most useful lesson to all wise states, not to tamper with the public credit, or countenance such suspicious projects; for though both these adventures set out with very plausible pretences of public benefit, and a certainty of relieving, rather than distressing, the credit of the nation, their course and progress soon became such as to excite the most lively apprehensions in all considerate minds, of the consequences which actually ensued; especially in England.

15. The politics of Europe were in a very perplexed state, towards the close of the reign of George I., owing to two treaties, of which some account has been given in another place, but which were very important to the English nation. These were the treaties of Vienna and Hanover, the former of which took place in April, and the latter in September, 1,725. By the former, the emperor and Spain were supposed secretly to have bound themselves to procure the restitution of Gibraltar and Port Mahon, to the latter power; to aid the pretender, and to further the interests of the Ostend East India Company, which had given umbrage to England, Holland, and France. By the latter treaty, England was able to secure on her side, against the projects of Austria and Spain, the kings of Prussia and Sweden, and the states of Holland; but as this aid was very slowly and reluctantly promised, and, in one instance, soon abandoned, the state of affairs would have been very alarming, but for the encouragement given by parliament, which was so effectual, that though considerable preparations for war took place on the part of almost all the nations concerned, articles of peace, throu

the mediation of France, were agreed upon in May, 1,727, and accepted by the imperial court and Spain; by these the charter of the Ostend company was suspended for a certain period, and the siege of Gibraltar, which had actually commenced, and been carried on for four months, raised and abandoned.

16. George I. died at Osnaburgh, on his way to his electoral dominions, June 11, 1,727, with the reputation of an honest and generous prince. He was brave in the field, and wise in council; having had many arduous negotiations on his hands, which he commonly conducted to a favourable issue; not often, however, without large subsidies. His own measures were generally defensive and preventative. He was fortunate in the state of things, at the period of Queen Anne's death, and in the removal of Lewis XIV., and Charles XII. of Sweden, both of whom were personally unfriendly to him, and certainly had projects on foot for the restoration of the Stuart family. King George constantly manifested a disposition to govern according to the laws and constitution of the kingdom. And it has been observed to his credit, that the nation not only improved in wealth and credit during his reign, but enjoyed a greater degree of tranquillity at home, and a longer duration of peace abroad, than during any period since the time of Queen Elizabeth. At the time of his death he was in the sixty-eighth year of his age.

SECTION III.

AUSTRIA (AND GERMANY) FROM THE PEACE OF RASTADT, 1,714, TO THE PEACE OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, 1,748.

1. The affairs of Austria, as incidentally connected with those of France, Spain, England, Italy, and Prussia, from the year 1,713 to 1,738, have been already treated of in the preceding sections. It may be necessary, however, to take a brief view of matters, from the commencement of the reign of Charles VI., to the death of that monarch; which event, as we shall have to show, greatly disturbed the whole of Europe, and occasioned the war which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1,748.

2. Charles VI., who had borne a conspicuous part in the succession war, as a competitor for the Spanish throne, (Part II. Sect. LXIV.) became emperor in the year 1,711, on the demise of his elder brother, Joseph I. Though he had declined becoming a party to the treaty of Utrecht, in 1,713, it was not long before he perceived his error, being left alone to support an expensive war. In the following year, therefore, he received the proposals made to him by the court of Versailles, consented to the opening of conferences, in the month of November, 1,713, and, in the March following, 1,714, signed the treaty of Rastadt, by which he obtained possession of the Spanish Netherlands, (except the barrier towns ceded to Holland,) Naples, Sardinia, Milan, Frieburg, and Kehl.

But he was very soon disturbed in a part of these acquisitions, by the restlessness and jealousy of Spain, already noticed. Great designs were formed against his Italian territories; Sardinia actually taken from him, in 1,717; Sicily, in 1,718, and further encroachments projected, but for the timely interposition of the English, under admiral Byng, in the Mediterranean, (Sect. II. § 9, 11.) who soon

brought matters to a favourable issue for Austria, with infinite credit to himself, both as an officer and a negotiator.

4. Spain had eagerly caught at the opportunity which presented itself of making these attacks upon Austria, while the latter power was engaged in war with Turkey, in aid of the Venetians. The Turks, (instigated, it has been said, by the Spanish minister, to engage the attention of Austria,) in violation of the treaty of Carlowitz, had taken the Morea from the Venetians, before Austria came to their aid, in the year 1,716; nor, though from that time so powerfully assisted, were they able to recover that peninsula. Charles VI., however, was not long at variance with the Porte upon this occasion. As early as the year 1,718, through the extraordinary skill and valour of prince Eugene, the Austrian commander, things were brought to an issue, and a peace concluded, through the mediation of England and Holland, at Passarowitz, by which the Turks were allowed to retain the Morea, on ceding to the Venetians some frontier towns in Albania and Dalmatia, while Austria obtained Belgrade, the Bannat of Temeswar and Wallachia, as far as the Aluta: she was also able to establish a free commerce in all the harbours of the Black Sea, and of the Danube, as well as with the Persians. The early termination of this war, together with the successes of the English on the shores of Sicily, checked the operations of the Spaniards, and disposed them to agree to the terms of the quadruple alliance. Spain and Austria, however, were not effectually reconciled till the year 1,725, at which period the emperor was induced to renounce his pretensions upon Spain and the Indies.

5. Charles VI. was for a long time deeply occupied in endeavouring to preserve his own dominions from such difficulties as Spain had been involved in, at the beginning of this century, owing to the disputed succession to the Spanish throne, on the demise of Charles II., and in which he had himself been so greatly concerned. He proposed, for this end, by a "Pragmatic Sanction," to make it a law, that if he should, at the time of his death, have either sons or daughters, the hereditary dominions and crowns belonging to the house of Austria, should remain united. In failure of such issue, male or female, the daughters of his deceased brother, Joseph, were to succeed; and if *they* died without heirs, the inheritance was to pass to his sisters, and their descendants. When this act was proposed, at the diet of Ratisbon, it was violently resisted by the electors of Saxony and Bavaria, as well as the elector Palatine, but by the treaty of Vienna, 1,731, as well as by previous negotiations at the different courts of Europe, almost every power, except France, was brought to consent to the proposed regulations; England and Holland, in particular, having been gained over by the emperor's agreement to suppress the new East India Company which he had endeavoured to establish at Ostend. The guarantee of France was not obtained till six years after, in recompense of the transfer of the duchies of Lorraine and Bar to the latter power, on the demise of Stanislaus, king of Poland, who obtained the government of those countries by the treaty of 1,738.

6. Charles VI. had scarcely succeeded in his great object of the pragmatic sanction, before he was engaged in a fresh war with the Turks, in virtue of a treaty concluded with Russia, who had commenced hostilities against the Porte, in 1,736. The war on the part of Austria, however, was of very short duration. She had lost the support of her famous general, prince Eugene; and her

armies, on the present occasion, appear to have been ill conducted. Jealousies and disagreements amongst the superior officers, and a great want of resources, baffled all their operations. In 1739, the emperor was compelled to submit to the terms of the treaty of Belgrade, which was highly advantageous to Turkey. Austria surrendered Servia, with the fortresses of Belgrade and Szabatch; and Austrian Wallachia, with the fortress of Orsova. By the treaty of Belgrade, the Porte also obtained advantages over Russia; but it is now known, that this convention was very artfully conducted by an agent of the French court, who was instructed not only to prevent the dismemberment of Turkey, by the combined forces of Austria and Russia, but to resist the aggrandizement of the former, and separate her, if possible, from her northern ally.

7. In the year immediately following that in which the treaty of Belgrade had restored harmony between the two courts of Vienna and Constantinople, so much to the advantage of the latter, Charles VI. died, the last heir-male of the Austrian line of princes. Notwithstanding all the care he had taken to secure to his daughter the entire hereditary dominions of his family; and though almost the whole of Europe had guaranteed the indivisibility of his dominions, according to his wishes, he was no sooner dead than numerous claims were set up, and a war kindled, which may be said to have, in its progress, involved every European state. The archduchess, Maria Theresa, consort of Francis, duke of Tuscany, according to the terms of the Pragmatic Sanction, (which, however, had been ill drawn up,) succeeded, on the death of her father, to the following kingdoms, states, and territories: Hungary and Bohemia, Silesia and Austrian Suabia, Upper and Lower Austria, Styria, Carinthia, Carniola, Burgau, Brisgau, the Low-Countries, Friuli, Tyrol, the Mantuan, and the Duchies of Milan, Parma, and Placentia.

8. Unfortunately for the archduchess, Charles VI. had left his army in a bad condition, his finances embarrassed, and, at the time of his death, a scarcity almost approaching to famine, prevailed in many parts of his dominions. All these circumstances combined, were calculated to raise up competitors for different portions of his estates. Nor were they at all tardy in advancing their claims. The elector of Bavaria pretended to be the proper heir to the kingdom of Bohemia. Augustus II., elector of Saxony and king of Poland, having married the eldest daughter of Joseph I., elder brother of Charles VI., claimed the whole Austrian succession. The king of Spain did the same, though upon a more remote title, and entirely through females. The king of Sardinia made pretensions to the duchy of Milan, and Frederic II., of Prussia, to the province of Silesia.

9. Many of these several claimants had formally agreed to the terms of the pragmatic sanction, and even at first professed the most favourable dispositions towards the archduchess, who had taken quiet possession of all that had descended to her; but the times, and the peculiar circumstances of the empire, encouraged them to break through their engagements; not, however, altogether without some pretence of honour and justice; as was the case with France. The king of France had, as well as the kings of Poland and Spain, pretended to have derived a right from two princesses, married to Lewis XIII. and XIV., to the whole succession; but choosing, rather than to depend upon these titles, to take the part of the elector of Bavaria, he insisted that, in his guarantee of the Pragmatic Sanction, by the

clause "*sine præjudicio tertii*," he was fairly left at liberty to espouse any claims that should appear to him more just than those of the archduchess, queen of Hungary. This clause had, indeed, been introduced into some of the acts of guarantee, though not into all.

10. The most forward and active of the queen's opponents was a prince little known till then, Frederic king of Prussia, at that time about twenty-eight years of age. He had succeeded, through the prudence of his father, to an army and a treasury of no inconsiderable importance; both of which he had himself also found time to improve. His movements were sudden, and quite unexpected by the court of Vienna; and he soon made known what his demands were, proposing that if they should be granted, he would support Austria against other enemies, and assist the queen in placing her husband on the imperial throne. He pretended, indeed, at first, to be only desirous of occupying Silesia, as a friend to the queen; but the mask was soon laid aside, and his fixed determination to become master of Lower Silesia rendered visible to all the world.

11. The queen would consent to the surrender of no part of her inheritance, though possibly her refusal in this instance, occasioned the alliance soon afterwards formed between the court of Versailles and Frederic, from which she suffered so much. England, it is said, counselled submission in the point of Silesia, foreseeing the consequences; but worse consequences, perhaps, were to be apprehended, had she complied. It would, in all likelihood, have disposed others to urge their claims with greater importunity.

12. Aided by France and Saxony, the elector of Bavaria, towards the middle of the year 1,741, acquired possession of the kingdom of Bohemia, and was proclaimed king, and inaugurated with great solemnity; and, on the 12th of February, 1,742, he had the imperial dignity conferred on him by the diet of Frankfort, under the title of Charles VII., having been chosen, however, when some of the electors were disqualified from voting.

13. Never was there a greater prospect of a total dismemberment of the Austrian dominions than at this time. Different parts were regularly assigned to the several claimants, and nothing left for the daughter of Charles VI. but the kingdom of Hungary, the province of Lower Austria, the Belgian states, and the duchies of Carinthia, Styria, and Carniola. Precautions had even been taken to prevent her deriving any aid from Russia, by exciting Sweden to declare war against the latter power. But the spirit of this surprising woman was not to be broken by the powerful combination against her. She had, at the very commencement of her reign, in a singular and extraordinary manner, and with consummate wisdom, particularly by taking the ancient oath of king Andrew II., attached to her interests the brave Hungarians. Repairing to them with her infant son, she threw herself entirely upon their protection, and, in the most public manner, addressing them in the Latin language, at a special assembly of the states, presented her child to them in terms the most pathetic. Supported by their valour, and with the help of English and Dutch money, she baffled all her enemies, and finally dissipated the storm that so rudely threatened her. It was not, indeed, until Walpole was removed from the English ministry that the queen received any active assistance from the king of England; but afterwards, both in Flanders and Italy, he was a powerful ally. She also derived some succours from the king of Sardinia, not, however, very creditably purchased with regard to Genoa.

14. Had the numerous powers first armed against Maria Theresa, or intimidated into a state of neutrality, agreed amongst themselves, it would have been impossible for the queen to have withstood their attacks; but, fortunately for her, many stood so directly in a state of rivalship towards each other, and France was such an object of suspicion and alarm to almost all the other confederates, that their very first movements produced jealousies and divisions amongst them; and, what is very remarkable, the earliest who showed a disposition to treat with the queen was the king of Prussia, in consequence of the successes of the elector of Bavaria in Bohemia.

15. The interference of England, in behalf of the queen, did at first, indeed, only exasperate France, and the other allies of Charles VII., and excite them to a more vigorous opposition. But the death of the emperor, in the year 1,745, who had derived no happiness, but, indeed, a great deal of misery, from his short exaltation, and his son's prudent and wise abandonment of such high dignities, in order to secure his quiet possession of his paternal dominions, left the queen at liberty to procure for her husband, Francis, grand duke of Tuscany, the imperial crown; his election to which took place in the month of September of the same year; the queen agreeing to admit the young elector of Bavaria to the full possession of his hereditary dominions, and to acknowledge his father, Charles VII., to have been duly invested with the imperial dignity. After some signal successes, the queen's great adversary, the king of Prussia, also came into her terms, having agreed, in a treaty concluded at Dresden, to acknowledge the validity of Francis's election, on being put in possession of Silesia and the county of Glatz, the chief objects for which he had been contending. The elector Palatine was likewise included in this treaty.

16. The French continued the war in the Netherlands, as well as in Italy, and with considerable success; but the queen being a good deal disembarrassed by the peace she had been able to conclude with Prussia, had it soon in her power to recover all that the French and Spaniards had acquired in Italy, while the French conquests in Flanders and Holland led to the re-establishment of the stadtholdership, and thereby baffled all their hopes of future advantages in those parts. The interference of the empress of Russia, subsidized by England, and, above all, the peculiar situation of the king of France, whose finances were almost exhausted, and who had suffered severe losses by sea, tended to bring matters to an issue. A congress was opened at Aix-la-Chapelle, which, though rather slow in its operations, at last terminated in a peace, concluded October 7, 1,748, exactly a hundred years after the famous treaty of Westphalia, which served for a basis of the negotiations entered into upon this occasion. By this convention, as in most other instances of the same nature, there was so general a restitution of conquests, as plainly to mark the folly and injustice of having continued the war so long. During this contest, in the year 1,743, died the cardinal de Fleury, first minister of France, at the very advanced age of ninety. He did not assume the reins of government till he was seventy-three. He had many virtues, but was much more admired by his countrymen for his integrity and disinterestedness, than for energy of character, or public spirit.

17. The treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle bringing us, as nearly as can be, to the middle of the eighteenth century, it may be well to take a

view of Europe at this particular period, and as connected with this celebrated treaty; but this must be reserved for a future section.

SECTION IV.

ENGLAND FROM THE ACCESSION OF GEORGE II. TO THE THRONE, 1,727, TO HIS DEATH, 1,760.

1. The accession of George II., who came to the throne 1,727, in the 44th year of his age, and in a time of profound peace, was not attended with such changes as many had expected. Even the minister himself, sir Robert Walpole, is said to have been surprised at the reception he met with from his majesty, on the demise of the late king, and at the continuance of the power in his hands. But this is now known to have been owing to the wise and prudent care of queen Caroline, who, at this moment, was found to possess an influence over her royal consort, which had been by many little suspected, but which her extreme good sense, and discreet conduct, seemed fully to justify. The whigs might justly be considered as the truest friends of the house of Hanover and the protestant church; and their continuance in power at the commencement of a new reign, though very grating to the adverse party, seemed to be extremely favourable to the quiet of the nation.

2. The good-will which had sprung up, and been encouraged during the regency, between the rival courts of Versailles and London, was not materially disturbed during the whole administration of Walpole, and his pacific contemporary, cardinal Fleury; the queen being also friendly to peace. But as it is not easy for any peaceable government long to escape the encroachments of other states, Spain, apparently presuming on the forbearance or apathy of the British ministry, committed great depredations, for a series of years, upon the trade of England with America and the West-Indies, committing many acts of most atrocious cruelty, in addition to their other deeds of insult and plunder. Some steps were at length taken to remedy these evils, but the conduct of Spain was so generally resented by the nation, as to render even the convention, by which the disputes were referred to arbitration, extremely unpopular. It being thought, by many of all descriptions, not only that the grievances complained of had been too long submitted to and endured, and the measures hitherto taken to redress them been too tame and submissive, but that nothing less than a war could restore the lost consequence of the state, or bring such offenders to reason.

3. The Spaniards, indeed, had defended their conduct in many memorials, pretending that the English were the aggressors, in carrying on a contraband and unlawful trade with their colonies; but had this been capable of proof to the extent the Spaniards pretended, which was certainly not the case, there is no doubt but that they suffered themselves to be hurried into most unjustifiable excesses in their measures of reprisal, and exceedingly ill-treated both the merchants and sailors of England. They insisted upon a general right of search, on the open seas, and condemned the ships and cargoes, upon such frivolous pretences as could not fail to be extremely injurious and oppressive, and quite contrary to existing treaties. In one instance, a whole fleet of English merchant-ships, at the island of

Tortugas, was attacked by Spaniards, as if the two nations had been at open war.

4. It would be scarcely possible, perhaps, to justify entirely the extraordinary forbearance of the British government, for nearly twenty years, during which not only these indignities had been continually repeated, but express engagements, and promises to redress and abstain from such aggressions in future, notoriously violated. This had been remarkably the case with respect to the stipulations of the treaty of Seville, concluded in the year 1,729. There were very warm debates in parliament on the subject, and the ministry were hard pressed to defend themselves from the charge of supineness, gross indifference to the sufferings of the merchants, and the honour of the crown, and, in some instances, even of criminal connivance. And, indeed, their opponents obtained, at length, this triumph over them, that the very convention which was to be the preliminary of a perfect adjustment of differences, and a surety for the indemnification of the merchants for all their losses, was, like every preceding treaty and compact, disregarded by Spain, and war obliged to be declared before the year was out, to compel her to more just and equitable measures. The war, however, was not so successful as to render it clear that the pacific and wary proceedings of the British minister were otherwise than most prudent and wise, considering the general circumstances of Europe. "Omnia prius experiri verbis quam armis sapientem decet," is a maxim which has been applied to the conduct of sir Robert Walpole, by an author, not backward to admit that, on some points, in regard to continental politics, the pacific system was carried too far. The period during which it prevailed will, certainly, for ever be a remarkable era in English history, especially as the reigning sovereign was notoriously a soldier, and by no means personally disposed to adopt so inactive a line of conduct.

5. Though the people had been clamorous for the war with Spain, they were soon dissatisfied with the conduct of it, and that to so great a degree, as to compel the minister, sir Robert Walpole, though with considerable reluctance, to resign his appointments; which took place in February, 1,742; the approbation of his sovereign being manifested in his elevation to the peerage, by the title of earl of Oxford. He was succeeded by lord Carteret. Sir Robert Walpole had been an able, intelligent, and prudent minister; a constant lover of peace, in the way of defence and prevention; and upon this he prided himself: he was of the whig party, which exposed him much to the rancour, not only of those whose political opinions were different, but of many disappointed persons who thought with him. By these he was stigmatized as having reduced corruption to a system; but by others, this charge was as confidently repelled; nor would it be difficult to prove that, though he often spoke as if he knew every man's price, he governed, not by corruption, but by party attachments, as his friends and admirers have alleged. Upon two great occasions his plans were thwarted by some who lived to see and correct their errors, as was the case, particularly, with Mr. Pitt, in regard to the excise bill, first proposed to the house of commons in the year 1,732. There was never, perhaps, a case in which party, faction, and ignorance prevailed more over truth, and justice, and prudence. The bill was calculated to check and control the most gross and pernicious frauds upon the revenues; to favour and encourage, in every possible manner, the fair dealer,

(and through him the public in general,) and by the savings produced in the treasury, materially to lighten the public burthens: yet such a clamour was raised against the measure, from its first suggestion, as to oblige the minister to abandon it.

6. The other measure, which brought great odium on this able minister of finance, was his trespass on the sinking fund, first established in 1,727, and which he made no scruple to alienate for public purposes, as occasion seemed to require. The very name of this fund is not equally applicable to all times. At first it arose entirely from savings, and its perpetual or uninterrupted operation under such circumstances, would appear to have been an indispensable part of its character. It had been calculated as proceeding upon the basis of compound interest; while new loans and debts, contracted for pressing emergencies, were held to burthen the public in the way of simple interest only. But in these days, the whole state of the question is changed. The modern sinking fund is not a sinking fund of surpluses or savings, but in itself a *borrowed* fund; of great power and great utility, occasionally, but plainly at the command of the public, whenever the current expenses cannot be provided for at a less cost; and, indeed, often beneficially to be applied to such purposes, in greater or less proportions, to the avoidance of many heavy charges of management, high premiums, and new taxes. The alienation of the original sinking fund, by sir Robert Walpole, however, has been very ably defended since, though opposed and resisted, at the time, with a virulence and animosity exceedingly distressing to that minister.

7. The new administration, which came into power on the resignation of Walpole, so little answered the expectations of their friends, deviated so soon from the principles they had avowed, while in opposition, and seemed so much more disposed to espouse the cause of Hanover, at the expense, and to the loss, of England, in useless subsidies and foreign wars, than to attend to the domestic difficulties under which she was supposed to be labouring, that they became, in a very short time, quite as unpopular as their predecessors, and in 1,745, the very year in which Walpole died, the rebellion broke out in Scotland.

8. This attempt against the house of Hanover, undertaken by the heir of the Stuart family, in person, was, undoubtedly, an ill-conducted, as it was ultimately an unsuccessful, enterprise; though to call it altogether a weak one, would be contrary to historical truth. Its commencement, indeed, had all the appearance of the most romantic infatuation, but in its progress it became so formidable, as even to threaten the capital of England, and the protestant succession; nor was it subdued without great efforts and exertions on the part of the king's forces, so unavailing and disheartening at first, as to render the issue of the contest extremely problematical. It was, in fact, at the beginning, despised and neglected, by the lords of the regency, in the absence of the king, who was then at Hanover, so that time was given for such an accession of friends and adherents to the cause of the pretender, while the English army was left without any adequate reinforcements, that the rebels not only got possession of Edinburgh, after a very severe but most successful action with the English, at Preston Pans, but were able to march, unmolested, far into England, and even to retreat, in the face of a powerful army, under circumstances peculiarly creditable to the prowess, humanity, and military skill of the Scottish commander.

9. Had the young prince met with the encouragement he expected on his march to the south, he might have possessed himself of the English, as he had done of the Scotch, capital; but his hopes of aid were, considering all things, strangely and cruelly disappointed. Not a soul joined him, of any importance, though he had advanced nearly to the very centre of the kingdom; while the French failed to fulfil their engagement of invading the southern parts of the island, in order to divide and occupy the English army, so that his retreat became a point of prudence perfectly inevitable, however mortifying and grating to the gallant spirit of Charles, who undoubtedly manifested a strong disposition to proceed against all obstacles.

10. The conflict between the two nations, on this occasion, was greatly affected by the religious tenets and principles of the opposing parties. Had Scotland been entirely catholic, the hopes of the Stuart family would have been extremely reasonable; but it was, at this period, divided between the presbyterians and the catholics; the Lowlanders being of the former sect, and the Highlanders, generally speaking, of the latter. The presbyterians, who had gained great advantages, in the way of toleration, by the revolution, having become whigs in principle, naturally adhered to the house of Hanover, while the catholic Highlanders were quite as fully and as naturally inclined to support their native prince. Nothing could be wiser, perhaps, under these circumstances, than the sending a prince of the blood to command the British forces, and, as it happened, no officer of the British army could be more popular than the duke of Cumberland, at this very period. His royal highness joined the army at Edinburgh, not long after the battle of Falkirk, in which the English, under general Hawley, had recently sustained a check. The duke, indeed, had been expressly recalled from Flanders, to suppress the rebellion, which was, in no small degree, detrimental and injurious to the cause of the allies.

11. The conduct of the son of the pretender was certainly that of a brave but inconsiderate young man. Sanguine in his expectations, beyond what any circumstances of the case would completely justify, he, in more instances than one, committed himself too far, and at the very last exposed himself to a defeat, which might, at least, have been suspended or mitigated, if not totally avoided. He made a stand against the king's forces at Culloden, while his troops were in a bad condition for fighting, and when it would obviously have been better policy to have acted on the defensive; to have retired before his adversary, till he had led him into the more impracticable parts of the highlands, where all his military means would have been crippled, and a retreat, perhaps, at least, have been rendered indispensably necessary; but by risking the battle of Culloden, (April 16, 1,746) he lost every thing. The duke of Cumberland gained a most decisive victory; and so completely subdued the hopes and spirits of his young opponent, that he never afterwards joined his friends, though solicited, and indeed engaged, so to do; but wandering about the country for a considerable time, with a price of £30,000 set on his head, after enduring incredible hardships and difficulties, embarked for France; and thus terminated for ever the struggles of that exiled and deposed family to recover its ancient dominions. The very remarkable instances of attachment, fidelity, and pure hospitality, by which, after the battle of Culloden, the unfortunate fugitive was preserved from the hands of his pursuers,

surpass any thing of the kind recorded in history, and reflect indelible credit on the high and disinterested feelings and principles of those who assisted him in his escape.

12. The most melancholy circumstance attending this rash undertaking, was the necessity that arose for making examples of those who had abetted it, in order more securely to fix on the throne of Great Britain the reigning family; who, having acquired that right in the most constitutional manner, could not be dispossessed of it, but by an unpardonable violation of the law. Of the excesses committed by the English troops after the battle of Culloden, it is to be hoped, as indeed it has been asserted, that the accounts are exaggerated; but in the common course of justice, many persons, and some of the highest rank, underwent the sentence of death for high treason, whose crime, through a melancholy infatuation, must in their own eyes have appeared the very reverse, and whose loyalty and attachment, under different circumstances, and with the law and constitution on their side, would have deserved the highest praise. Though many of the adherents of the pretender suffered, many of them made their escape beyond sea, and arrived safely at the different ports of the continent. No attempts have since been made by any of the catholic descendants of the royal family of Great Britain to disturb the protestant succession in the house of Brunswick.

13. This illustrious house sustained a very unexpected and melancholy loss, in the year 1,750, by the death of his royal highness the prince of Wales, father of his late majesty; who, in consequence of a cold caught in his gardens at Kew, died of a pleuritic disorder, on the twentieth day of March, in the forty-fifth year of his age. He was a prince endowed with many amiable qualities; a munificent patron of the arts, a friend to merit, and sincerely attached to the interests of Great Britain.

14. In the course of the year 1,751, a remarkable act was passed in parliament, for correcting the calendar, according to the Gregorian computation. It was enacted, that the new year should begin on the first of January, and that eleven days between the second and fourteenth days of September, 1,752, should for that time be omitted, so that the day succeeding the second, should be called the fourteenth of that month. This change was on many accounts exceedingly important, but to persons wholly unacquainted with astronomy, it appeared a strangely arbitrary interference with the currency and settled distinctions of time.

15. Though the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1,748, may be said to have restored peace to Europe, the English and French came to no good understanding with regard to their remote settlements. The war in those parts involved the interests of the natives or settlers, as well as of the two courts, and scarcely seems to have fallen under the consideration of the negotiating ministers. In the east and in the west many disputes and jealousies were raised, which though referred to special commissioners to adjust, in no long course of time involved both countries in a fresh war, the particulars of which will be found elsewhere: a war which extended to all parts of the globe, and continued beyond the reign of George II., who died suddenly at Kensington, in 1,760, in the 77th year of his age, and 34th of his reign.

16. George II. was a prince of high integrity, honour, and veracity, but of a warm and irritable temper, of a warlike disposition, and though for a long time restrained by his pacific minister, sir

Robert Walpole, from taking any active part in the disputes of the continent, yet constantly inclined to do so, from an attachment, very natural, though unpopular amongst his British subjects, to his German dominions. He was greatly under the influence of his queen, while she lived, "whose mild, prudent, and conciliating manners," to use the words of a very impartial and judicious biographer, "were more congenial to the character of the English nation." Queen Caroline had indeed many great and splendid virtues; though of most amiable and domestic habits, she was well versed in the politics of Europe, and had considerable literary attainments, which disposed her to be a friend to learned persons, particularly to many members of the church, of which several striking and remarkable instances have been recorded. It is sufficient to mention the names of Herring, Clarke, Hoadley, Butler, Sherlock, Hare, Secker, and Pearce. She was the daughter of John Frederick, margrave of Brandenburgh Anspach, and was born in the year 1,683. She was married to his majesty in 1,705, and had issue two sons and five daughters. Her death, which occassioned great grief to her royal consort and family, took place on the 20th of November, 1,733, when she was in the 55th year of her age.

SECTION V.

STATE OF EUROPE AT THE CONCLUSION OF THE PEACE OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE, 1,748.

1. By the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle the house of Hanover was effectually established on the throne of Great Britain, to the entire exclusion of the Stuart family. Though the peace was not popular in England, and she was supposed by many to have made too great, and in some instances ignominious concessions, yet it was certainly fortunate for her that the continental powers confined their views to a balance which did not extend to the sea; and thereby left in her hands a force, beyond calculation superior to that of the other countries of Europe, and amounting almost to a monopoly of commerce, credit, and wealth, so as to render her, as it were, the chief agent or principal, in all political movements, for the time to come. Her prosperity, indeed, had been on the increase, in no common degree, from the accession of the Brunswick family.

2. Austria lost, by the treaty of 1,748, Silesia and Glatz, the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, and some places in the Milanese: but she succeeded, and chiefly at the expense of her allies, in the article of the succession. All former treaties were formally recognised, which involved indeed other losses to the empire, if compared with the time of Charles V.; but the dominions of the latter were certainly too extensive, and too detached, to form a great and stable empire. This, indeed, may be said to have been the case with regard even to the reduced domains of Charles VI.; but his high-spirited daughter, Maria Theresa, was to the last indignant at the losses she had sustained. She corrected the error into which she had fallen with regard to Genoa, and which occasioned great commotions there, by consenting to let the marquisate of Final revert to that republic, which had been very arbitrarily given, in the course of the war, as a bribe to the king of Sardinia, and made a free port, to the evident disadvantage of the Genoese, who had

originally purchased it for a valuable consideration, under the guarantee of Great Britain.

3. Prussia gained, by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, Silesia, and the county of Glatz, which were guaranteed to her by all the contracting powers; and by this accession of territory she was raised into the condition of a power capable of entering into the field of action, as a rival of Austria; which might have been foreseen, when Leopold erected it into a kingdom, for the express purpose of counterbalancing the power of France. As it was, the unity of the empire seemed to be dissolved, and a door set open to future revolutions in the Germanic body. The character and subsequent achievements of Frederick II. contributed greatly to the aggrandizement of his dominions. He was active, bold, fond of glory, and indefatigable. He was brave in the field, and wise in the cabinet. Desirous of shining in all that he undertook, he was indefatigable in keeping his army constantly ready for all emergencies, and in repairing the damages to which his dominions had been subjected by his ambition. He drew to him many eminent persons of all countries, of whose society he pretended to be fond; but he oftentimes showed himself to be a most merciless tyrant, a blunderer in political economy, and, if not quite an atheist, very lax in his principles of religion.

4. *Holland* lost much by the peace, and gained nothing. Some, indeed, doubted whether she did not greatly endanger her independence, by consenting to make the stadtholdership hereditary in the house of Orange, and that in favour of the female as well as male heirs of the family: but others conceived that this approach to monarchical government greatly strengthened the republic; and it would indeed seem that it had declined much in power and consequence, from the very period when that office was abolished, in the preceding century. One precaution was adopted with regard to the female heirs to the Stadtholdership: they were precluded from marrying any king, or elector of the empire; a precaution which there were, in the history of Europe, sufficient reasons to justify.

5. *Spain* obtained, for two branches of her royal family, the kingdom of Naples, and the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla: the latter to revert to Austria, that is, Parma and Guastalla, and Placentia to Sardinia, should the new duke, don Philip, die without issue, or succeed to either of the kingdoms of Spain or Naples. But the power of Spain was not much increased, either by land or sea. On the latter, indeed, the English had an overwhelming superiority; and, on land, though her armies were brave, they were generally ill conducted, and her government too bad to render her respectable in the eyes of Europe. Ferdinand VI., indeed, the successor of Philip, who came to the throne just before the conclusion of the treaty, applied himself, with no small degree of credit, to retrieve the character of the nation.

6. Austria, by seeking an alliance with *Russia*, had introduced the latter power into the southern states of Europe, and given her considerable weight and consequence, as a counterbalance to her great rival, France. Scarcely known at the commencement of the century, the movement impressed upon this mighty empire by the extraordinary genius and vigour of Peter the first, had carried her forward, with a rapid progression; so that, by the middle of the century, she might justly be regarded as amongst the most considerable powers of Europe. Her armies were, perhaps, more than semi-barbarous; but they were brave, indefatigable, hardy, and supported by the reli-

gious principle of predestination; the foundation of a desperate kind of hardihood, seldom to be resisted. Her internal resources were not at all considerable, but they were daily improving. When Peter the first came to the crown, her revenues amounted to six millions of roubles; in 1,748 they were nearly quadrupled. Thus rapidly advancing, with one arm reaching to the Baltic, and the other to the Black sea, it was very obvious to discern that when, by good management, her gigantic body should be duly invigorated, she had every chance of becoming a most formidable power. Already had she shown herself such, to a great degree, in the influence she had acquired in Sweden, Denmark, and Poland; in her commercial treaties with England, her alliance with Austria, and her wars with the Turks. Her resources and means of improvement were great; rivers not only navigable during the summer, but during the winter also, affording, by means of sledges, every opportunity of a quick and easy transport of all sorts of commercial goods; the greater part of her southern provinces fertile, and requiring little culture; mines of gold, iron, and copper; great quantities of timber, pitch, tar, and hemp. She had not yet learned to manufacture her own productions, or to export them in her own ships, and consequently to make the most of them: but she was in the way to learn such arts, and when once attained, she had the fairest prospects of acquiring a decided superiority, not only in the Baltic, and White sea, but on the Black sea and Caspian.

7. Turkey, at the middle of the eighteenth century, was comparatively a gainer by the wars in which she had been engaged. She had taken the Morea from the Venetians, recovered from Austria Belgrade, Servia, and some provinces of Transylvania and Wallachia, and had hitherto baffled the attempts of Russia, to get absolute possession of the Crimea, and of the mouths of the Danube.

8. France obtained little in point of extent by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, but that little was of extreme importance. The possession of Lorraine, in addition to Alsace, and several strong forts on the Rhine, strengthened and completed, in the most perfect manner, her eastern frontier, and placed her in a most commanding attitude with regard to the German states. During the administration of cardinal Fleury, which lasted till the year 1,743, her marine had been deplorably neglected, while the English had been able to enrich themselves at the expense of the French, particularly by intercepting many valuable convoys, and capturing many ships of her reduced navy.

9. An author of reputation has proposed to throw the different European states, at the conclusion of the peace of 1,748, into the four following classes:—

1. Those that having armies, fleets, money, and territorial resources, could make war without foreign alliances. Such were England and France.

2. Those that with considerable and powerful armies, were dependent on foreign resources. Austria, Prussia, and Russia.

3. Those that could not engage in war, but in league with other states, subsidized by them, and always regarded in the light of secondary powers by the large ones. Portugal, Sardinia, Sweden, Denmark.

4. Such as were interested in maintaining themselves in the same condition, and free from the encroachment of others. Switzerland, Genoa, Venice, and the German states.

Holland, Spain, and Naples, being omitted in the above account,

might reasonably be thrown into a fifth class, as countries generally so connected with England, France, and Austria, as to be constantly involved in every war affecting either of those countries.

SECTION VI.

OF THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR, 1,775—1,762.

1. Though for some short time after the conclusion of the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1,748, England and France seemed to enjoy, in no common degree, the blessings of peace, and to be upon a footing of perfect amity with each other, yet it would appear that the seeds of a future war were sown in the very circumstances of that convention. England was left in possession of such a preponderating force at sea, while the French marine, through the parsimony or inattention of cardinal Fleury, had fallen into so low a state of depression, that it is not to be wondered that all who were interested about the latter, should have their minds filled with jealousy and resentment. This was soon manifested, not only by the vigorous attempts made at this time to restore the marine of France, but in the projects formed for dispossessing the English of their principal settlements in the East Indies and America; a blow which might have been far more fatal to the English nation, than any leagues or confederacies in favour of the pretender. To secure the co-operation and support of Spain in these designs, France had endeavoured, in the year 1,753, to draw the latter into a *family compact*, which, though afterwards brought about, was at this time successfully frustrated, by the extraordinary care and vigilance of the British minister at Madrid.

2. The peace established in Europe in 1,748, can scarcely be said to have ever been effectually extended to Asia and America. The conquests on each side indeed had been relinquished and surrendered by that treaty, but in a most negligent manner with respect to limits and boundaries; and in each of those distant settlements, France at that time happened to have able and enterprising servants, who thought they saw, in their respective governments, such means of aggrandizing themselves and their country, and of thwarting the British interest, as were not to be overlooked or neglected. In the East Indies very extraordinary attempts were made to reduce the whole peninsula of India Proper, in short, the whole Mogul empire, under the dominion of France, by an artful interference in the appointment of the governors of kingdoms and provinces, the *Soubahdars*, *Nabobs*, and *Rajahs*. The power of the mogul had been irrevocably shaken by Kouli-Khan, in 1,738, from which time the viceroys and other subordinate governors had slighted his authority, and, in a greater or less degree, become independent. The interference of the French was calculated to throw things into confusion, by dispossessing those who were adverse to them of their governments and territories, and thus compelling them, as it were, to seek succour from the English; which ultimately brought the two rival nations of Europe into a state of hostility, not as avowed principals, but as the auxiliaries of the different native princes or nabobs. In no long course of time, things took a turn entirely in favour of the English and their allies; the French were baffled in all their projects, every place they possessed taken from them, a suspension of arms agreed upon, in 1,754, and the French governor, Dupleix, the ambitious and

enterprising author and fomenter of all the troubles, but who had been ill-supported by his government at home, recalled from India.

3. It was at this period that the celebrated Mr. Clive, afterwards lord Clive, first distinguished himself, who had not only discernment enough to see through and detect all the artifices and designs of Dupleix, but, though not brought up to the military profession, soon displayed such skill and courage in conducting the operations of the army, as speedily established his fame, and laid the foundation for his future elevation and glory.

4. In America, the boundaries of the ceded provinces not having been justly defined in the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, the French had formed a design of connecting, by a chain of forts, their two distant colonies of Canada and Louisiana, and to confine the English entirely within that tract of country which lies between the Alleghany and Apalachian mountains and the sea. No part of this design could be carried on without manifest encroachment on territories previously, either by agreement, settlement, or implication, appropriated to others! Where the boundaries were not precisely defined, all that was not English or French, belonged to the native tribes, and the only policy that the European colonists had to observe, was to conciliate the friendship, or resist the attacks of these ferocious neighbours. But the scheme the French had in agitation threatened to be extremely injurious to the English colonists; giving them, in case of war, a frontier of fifteen hundred miles to defend, not merely against a race of savages, as heretofore, but against savages supported by disciplined troops, and conducted by French officers.

5. It was not possible for England long to contemplate these aggressions and projects without interfering; but her means of resisting them were not equal to those by which the French were enabled to carry them into execution. The English colonies were notoriously divided by distinct views and interests; had many disagreements and differences among themselves, which seemed, for some time at least, totally to prevent their acting in concert, however necessary to their best interests. The French depended on no such precarious support, but were united both in their object and operations. Hostilities, however, did not actually commence till the year 1755, from which period the contest in North America was carried on with various success, between the French and English, severally assisted by different tribes of Indians; in the course of which, it is more than probable, that sad acts of cruelty may have been perpetrated, and both nations have been to blame in some particulars; but it is certainly remarkable, that each party stands charged *exclusively* with such atrocities by the historians of the adverse side; and while the English writers attribute the whole war to the intrigues and encroachments of the French, the latter as confidently ascribe it to the cupidity and aggressions of the English. It is very certain, however, that, before the war actually commenced, the French court made such strong but insincere professions of amity, and a desire of peace, as to deceive its own minister at the court of St. James's, M. de Mirepoix, who felt himself so ill-treated in being made the tool of such duplicity and dissimulation, as to cause him to repair to Paris, to remonstrate with the administration who had so cajoled him. It is necessary to mention these things, where historical truth is the great object in view.

6. At the commencement of this contest between France and England, the former seems to have been most successful on land:

but the latter, and to a much greater degree, at sea. Before the end of the first year of the war, no less than three hundred French merchant vessels, some of them extremely rich, with eight thousand sailors, being brought into the English ports; and while the rate of insurance in the latter country continued as usual, in France it quickly rose to 30 per cent., a pretty strong indication of the comparative inferiority of the latter, as far as regarded her marine, and the safety of her navigation.

7. But it was soon found expedient by one, if not by both parties, to divert the attention from colonial to continental objects; a measure which, as in a former instance, the French writers ascribe entirely to England, and the English writers as confidently to France; but it is sufficiently clear that the latter first entertained views upon the electorate of Hanover, which gave that turn to the war in general. Considering what had passed in the preceding struggle upon the continent, nothing could be more strange than the conduct of the different states of Europe on this particular occasion. Instead of receiving assistance from the empress queen, whose cause England had so long and so magnanimously supported, and who was bound by treaty to contribute her aid in case of attack, Maria Theresa evaded the applications made to her by the court of St. James's, (perhaps in rather too high and peremptory a tone,) on the pretence that the war between France and England had begun in America; and she applied herself with peculiar assiduity to recover, through the aid of Russia, the provinces of Silesia and Glatz, which had been ceded to the Prussian monarch.

8. It has been conjectured that her imperial majesty had been greatly offended at the preliminaries of peace, in 1748, having been signed by England without her approbation, and that she was capable of carrying her resentment so far as voluntarily to throw herself into the arms of France, without further consideration; while the French king, whose strange course of life had been too openly ridiculed by the king of Prussia, foolishly suffered himself to be cajoled into an alliance with Austria, after three hundred years of warfare, against his former active and powerful ally; thereby breaking through the wise system of Richelieu, and helping to raise the very power, of whose greatness France had the most reason to be jealous; but Maria Theresa, and her minister, prince Kaunitz, to produce this great change in the policy of France, had stooped to flatter and conciliate the king's mistress, the marchioness of Pompadour.

9. Fortunately for England, however, the conduct of these two courts quickly determined the king of Prussia to form an alliance with the elector of Hanover; to stifle and forget all former differences and animosities, and peremptorily to resist the entrance of foreign troops into Germany; a measure which, though first directed against Russia, subsidized by England, equally applied to France. An alliance between the kings of Great Britain and Prussia had long been contemplated by some of the ablest statesmen of the former country, as the most natural and wisest connexion that could be formed to counteract the projects and power of France. Hitherto strong personal jealousies and ill-will on the part of the two sovereigns had prevented any such union, and now it was brought about by accident; much more, however, to the advantage of Prussia than of Great Britain. It had been proposed in England, to subsidize Russia, but the negotiations of the former with the king of Prussia,

whom the czarina personally disliked, produced a close but unexpected union of Russia, Austria, and France; not so much against England, perhaps, as against Prussia, nor yet so much against the kingdom of Prussia as against the king himself.

10. Such was the commencement of what has been termed the seven years' war. It seemed soon to be forgotten that it was originally a maritime or colonial war. The whole vengeance of France and Austria, in 1757, was directed against the king of Prussia, and electorate of Hanover. The Prussian monarch, relying on his well-organized army and abundant treasury, despised the powerful combination against him, and commenced the war in a most imposing, though precipitate manner, by dispossessing, at the very outset, the king of Poland, elector of Saxony, in alliance with Austria, of his capital, of his whole army, and of his electoral dominions, in a way little creditable to his character, notwithstanding the strong political motives alleged in his subsequent manifestoes. The situation of France, by this sudden manœuvre, was certainly rendered most extraordinary. At the commencement of the former war, she had done her utmost to dethrone Augustus, king of Poland, in favour of Stanislaus, whose daughter had married the French king; and she had now just as strong and urgent a reason to assist in restoring Augustus to his hereditary dominions, the daughter of the latter being married to the dauphin, and the life of the dauphiness having been endangered by the intelligence received of the rigorous treatment of her royal parents.

11. It was during the seven years' war, that Frederic of Prussia acquired that glory in the field which has rendered his reign so conspicuous and remarkable. The attended victim, as he had great reason to suppose, of an overwhelming confederacy of crowned heads, he lost no time in defending himself against their attacks, by occupying the territories of those who threatened him, so suddenly and irritarily indeed, with regard to Saxony, as to give offence to the greater part of Europe; but generally contending with surprising success against superior armies, though incessantly summoned from one field of battle to another, by the numerous and divided attacks of his opponents; nor was there one of all the powers that menaced him, whom he did not find means to humble, and in some instances punish most severely, at first, with an impetuosity bordering upon rashness; afterwards, by more wary and circumspect proceedings. In Silesia, Saxony, Brandenbourg, Hanover, and Westphalia, he had to contend with the armies of the empire, Austria, Russia, Sweden, France, and Saxony; 200,000 men are supposed to have fallen annually in these campaigns. Though often worsted, (as must be the case, where no consideration of superior numbers is allowed to operate as a check,) his great genius was never more manifested, than in the quick reparation of such reverses. Often did his situation appear perfectly desperate, both to friends and enemies, yet as often did he suddenly succeed in some new effort, and in extricating himself from disasters which threatened entirely to overwhelm him; being all the while under the ban of the empire, in virtue of a decree of the aulic council, which bound every German circle, in obedience to the imperial orders, to assist in depriving him of his possessions, dignities, and prerogatives. The rapidity of his motions was beyond all example; neither danger nor misfortune could dishearten him; and had his moderation been but equal to his courage, had he, in all cases, been as humane as he was brave, his military character would have

stood higher, perhaps, than that of any other commander, ancient or modern.

12. The army, it must be acknowledged, for some time afforded but little assistance to, if it did not actually embarrass, the operations of Frederic. A formidable force of 38,000 Hanoverian, Hessian, and other troops, under the command of the duke of Cumberland, had, in a most extraordinary manner, been reduced, though neither beaten nor actually disarmed, to a state of inactivity, and the king's German dominions abandoned to the enemy, by a convention the most singular upon the records of history; and if actually necessary, only rendered so by the impolitic movements of the commander-in-chief, who, instead of endeavouring to join the Prussians, after a sharp contest, in which the French had the advantage, retreated in a totally different direction, merely to keep up, as it has been supposed, a communication with the place to which the archives and most valuable effects of Hanover had been removed.

13. This convention, indeed, signed at Closter-seven, September 8, 1,757, was said to have been concluded against the wishes of the royal commander himself, and entirely at the instance and requisition of the regency of Hanover. Be this, however, as it may, it was undoubtedly almost fatal to the king of Prussia, and exceedingly humiliating to England, though ultimately attended with this good effect, that it seems to have roused and stimulated both the people and government to greater exertions. Unfortunately much of this good spirit and renewed activity was wasted in fruitless attempts on the coast of France, which cost the nation much money, and, as it turned out contributed little or nothing to her glory and advantage; the demolition of the works at Cherburg, and capture of Belle Isle, 1,761, which was of use afterwards, as an exchange for Minorca, being all she had to boast of. To her great and indefatigable ally, the king of Prussia, these expeditions to the French coast could be of no use, except in diverting a part at least of the French forces, which might otherwise have been opposed to him; but they had scarcely this effect, and though that great minister, Mr. Pitt, afterwards lord Chatham, appears to have been the chief promoter of these measures, in opposition to many members of the British cabinet, the policy of them, even had they been more successful, has been pretty generally questioned. Her soldiers, many thought, were principally wanting in Germany, the grand theatre of military operations, to strengthen and give effect to the judicious and bold measures of prince Ferdinand, who, being, by the advice, it is said, of the Prussian monarch, on the retirement of the duke of Cumberland, after the convention spoken of, placed at the head of the allied army, had succeeded in compelling the French to evacuate Hanover, Brunswick, and Bremen. England indeed had been liberal in her subsidies, even to a degree that some thought unwise and extravagant, and she had been successful in America, Asia, Africa, and generally on the ocean. The French navy indeed, was almost annihilated; and her colonies, both in the east and west, had fallen a prey to the English armies; even Canada, the source and focus, as it were, of the transatlantic disputes between England and France, was completely subdued by the armies under the command of Wolfe, Townshend, Monckton, Murray, and Amherst, who displayed such zeal, valour, and abilities, in the capture of the towns of Quebec and Montreal, as have never been exceeded.

14. Though prince Ferdinand had driven the French back, it was

doubted whether the forces under his command would be sufficient to maintain these advantages; apprehensions, indeed, were entertained, that he might be reduced to form another convention as humiliating as that of Closter-seven. But the genius and valour of this great prince surmounted the difficulties in which he seemed to be placed, by most judiciously, and with no small art, compelling the French to come to an engagement, under circumstances peculiarly favourable to the allied army; and the battle of Minden, which took place August 1, 1,759, though the subject afterwards of much jealousy amongst the allies, effectually relieved the electorate of Hanover, and the greater part of Westphalia, from the presence of the French.

15. It was at this period, August 10, 1,759, that Ferdinand VI., of Spain, died, and was succeeded by his brother, don Carlos, king of the two Sicilies, under the title of Charles III., in consequence of which succession, and according to the terms of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, don Philip should have surrendered the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla to Austria and Sardinia, and removed to Naples, (see Sect. V. § 5:) but as Charles III. had never acceded to that treaty, he left the crown of the two Sicilies to his third son, Ferdinand, and don Philip agreed, and was allowed by Austria, to retain the three duchies; the courts of France and Spain having managed to quiet the alarms of Sardinia, in regard to the reversion of Placentia.

16. The removal of don Carlos to Spain, at a time when so many advantages had been gained over the French by the English, at sea and in America, justly alarmed the new monarch for his own colonies and settlements in those parts; and these apprehensions soon became a reason for his entering into a *family compact* with France, which had been attempted before, but frustrated by the care and vigilance of the British minister. It was in fact entirely arranged and concluded in the month of August, 1,761, and extended to all the *Bourbon* princes; it was a treaty of mutual and reciprocal naturalization, and equality of rights, to the subjects of all the Bourbon states, *France, Spain, the two Sicilies, Parma*, and *Placentia*, with a general guarantee of each other's dominions, under all possible circumstances except *one*, which was, that Spain should be excused from interfering in any quarrels of France, arising out of the treaty of Westphalia, unless some *maritime* power should take part in such disputes, or France be invaded.

17. The above clause in the treaty was judged to be so evidently aimed at England, as to justify an immediate declaration of war against Spain on the part of the former, which accordingly took place early in the year 1,762; nor was Spain backward in following the example against England, in resentment, as it was alleged, of the supercilious and arbitrary manner, in which the latter had interfered with regard to the *family compact*.

18. The first fruits of this extraordinary confederacy were a gross attempt upon the independency of Portugal, as an ally of England, by France and Spain; an attempt the most appalling to Portugal, had not her brave and honourable sovereign resolved rather to perish than to submit to the terms dictated to him by the combined monarchs. England was in every way bound to give aid and support to her ancient and faithful ally, on so trying an occasion; and, fortunately, her help came so opportunely and so promptly, as to enable the king of Portugal to repel the Spaniards, who had not only passed the frontiers, but actually taken several towns. Thus was that monarch

and his dominions saved from the effects of as wicked and arbitrary a design as was ever entertained against an independent or neutral potentate, and that on the sole ground of his connexion with England at the moment; to whose resentment he would of course have been exposed, had he tamely submitted to the tyrannical demands of France and Spain. In either case, he seemed to be threatened with ruin and destruction, had things taken a different turn, from what actually came to pass.

19. The hostilities into which Great Britain was driven by this unprovoked attack upon Portugal, as well as by the threatening aspect and spirit of the *family compact*, which seemed to undo all that had been accomplished by the succession war, were in every instance crowned with success; so that in both hemispheres, her arms may be said to have been victorious, and her triumph complete; and Spain had great cause to rue her short concern in the war, into which she had been cajoled by France, and which operated as fully to the disappointment of the latter power. In the mean while, the king of Prussia, who had been brought to the very verge of ruin, according to his own statement and confession, was most unexpectedly relieved by surprising changes in the Russian councils, through the demise of Elizabeth, and accession of Peter III., whose reign indeed was too short to enable him to render any real assistance to the king of Prussia, in the field, which might have been expected from the enthusiastic admiration with which his actions were beheld by the Russian monarch. But this weak, though benign prince, in consequence of his too extensive plans of reform, and a difference with his empress, was soon removed; and though his successor and consort, Catherine the second, did not by any means pay the same court to Frederic, yet her opposition to him was very slight, and soon terminated by a treaty of peace, in which she was followed by Sweden.

20. All these things evidently tended towards a general peace, if England, who had certainly been the most successful of all the powers concerned, could be brought to consent to be stopped in her career of victory and triumph. A change of ministry had, however, laid the foundation for such measures. Mr. Pitt, who was for the continuance of the war, on some private information, as it has been thought, of the progress and terms of the family compact, had resigned soon after the demise of the king, George II.; and lord Bute, who owed his place and power as minister, much more to the personal good-will and attachment of the new king, than to the voice and favour of the people, foreseeing that it might be difficult for him to raise either money or men for the prosecution of the war, (bounties for recruits, in particular, having risen to an unexampled height,) and having against him many important individuals of both parties, entered freely into negotiations with France, which were brought to an issue by the peace of Paris, (or Fontainebleau,) 1,763.

21. This treaty was not popular in England, though, undoubtedly, she reaped the benefit of many remarkable concessions, particularly in America, where she acquired, not only the whole province of Canada, but part of Louisiana; the junction of which two distant French settlements, to the embarrassment, and possibly, total subjection of the English colonies, had been the express occasion of the war; but by many persons it was thought, and perhaps with great reason, that England had surrendered too much, considering the high situation in which she stood, and the advantages that might

have been reaped by a little longer continuance of the war; and in what she both surrendered and retained, an ill and impolitic selection, it was alleged, had been made of posts and settlements. The treaty of Hubertsburg, by which the war was terminated between Austria and Prussia in the same year, 1,763, restored matters, in regard to those two powers, exactly to their former state, after SEVEN most destructive and expensive campaigns! Nothing of territory was lost and nothing gained by either party. England, undoubtedly, was left in the highest state of prosperity at the conclusion of these two treaties. Her navy unimpared, or rather augmented at the expense of the navy of France; her commerce extending from one extremity of the globe to the other, with an accession of important settlements ceded to her by France in Asia, Africa, and America.

SECTION VII.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF GEORGE III. 1,760, TO THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE DISPUTES WITH AMERICA, 1,764.

1. Though a new enemy, for a very short time, was added to the list of those who were contending with England and her allies, when George the second died, by the accession of Spain to the *family compact*, and continental confederacy, in 1,761, yet the seven years' war, through the exhaustion of the allies of Austria, particularly the Saxons, Poles, and French, may be said to have been drawing to a conclusion, when George III. ascended the throne of Great Britain, on the demise of his grandfather, October 25, 1,760. For the termination of that war, see Sect. VI.

2. Much notice was taken of a passage in the king's first speech to his parliament, in which he expressed the glory he felt in having been born and educated in Britain; and though some have pretended to see in it a reflection on his royal predecessors, yet it was surely wise in the first sovereign of the house of Hanover, who stood clear of foreign manners, and foreign partialities, so to bespeak the love and attachment of his subjects. It is true, indeed, that England had prospered in no common degree from the first accession of that illustrious family, but it cannot be denied, that a distaste of foreign manners, as well as a jealousy of foreign partialities, had occasionally interrupted the proceedings of government, and were at all events calculated to keep up, in the minds of the disaffected, a remembrance of the breach that had been made in the succession to the throne. Fourteen years having passed since any attempt had been made to restore the Stuart family, and the condition of that family having become such, as to render any further endeavours to that effect, extremely improbable, nothing more seemed wanting to remove all remaining prejudices against the Brunswick line of princes, than that the sovereign should be a native of the land he ruled.

3. In addition to this tie upon his subjects, every thing seemed to conspire, as far as regarded the character, manners, and disposition of the young king, to secure to him the attachment of his people; and to give hopes of a quiet and tranquil reign. One of the very first acts of which was calculated to impress the idea of his being a true friend to the liberty of the subject, by rendering the judges *independent* of the crown. His majesty was married, soon after his accession, to the princess Charlotte of Mecklenburgh Strelitz, with

whom he was crowned at Westminster, on the 22d day of September, 1,761.

4. However promising the appearances both of external and internal tranquillity might be, at the commencement of the new reign, it was not long before the nation became agitated by party disputes and differences, of no small importance. In 1,762, a question arose, which though it led to very distressing tumults, terminated in the relief of the subject from an arbitrary process, exceedingly repugnant to the spirit of the constitution, and the great charter of British liberty. General warrants, and the seizure of private papers without sufficient necessity, the legality of which had been disputed, in the case of Mr. Wilkes, member for Ailesbury, during which that gentlemen displayed considerable fortitude, though certainly with great failure of respect towards the crown, were declared to be illegal by a solemn decree of parliament, 1,765, nor has any attempt been since made to reinvest the government with so dangerous and formidable a power. The question of general warrants, however, was not the only one in which Mr. Wilkes appeared as the champion of the people's liberties. Being elected for Middlesex, after having been expelled the house, he claimed his seat, in defiance of the resolutions of parliament, but was not allowed to sit. Five years afterwards, he was permitted again to enter the house of commons; but in this instance the parliament maintained its power of declaring a particular individual disqualified, against the decision of a majority of electors; a curious point as affecting the constitution, and the elective franchise.

5. Though the courts of Vienna, France, and Prussia, had cause to be tired of the war, in which they had been engaged since the year 1,755, it is certain that England was in a state to continue it, especially by sea, when the treaty of Paris, or Fontainebleau, was concluded, in 1,763. As long as Mr. Pitt continued a member of administration, the war had been carried on vigorously, and had become exceedingly popular, so that on the resignation of that great minister, in 1,761, and the appointment of lord Bute, whose distrust of his own abilities to continue it, disposed him to listen to the overtures of France, great discontents arose. The minister was suspected of harbouring in his breast the most despotic principles, and of having inculcated the same into the mind of his sovereign, while yet a youth. He was supposed to possess too exclusive an influence in that quarter; and though, in private life, a most respectable nobleman, of great worth and probity, learning, and talents, his public measures were the continual theme of obloquy and abuse. Had Mr. Pitt continued in office, it is more than probable that the allies might have gained greater advantages on the continent, and the Spaniards been more severely punished for their interference; so that the pacific measures of the new minister, drew upon him the displeasure, if not the contempt, as well of his own countrymen, as of the king of Prussia also; who in his writings has inveighed greatly against the prevailing influence of the noble earl at this period, in the cabinet and councils of Great Britain.

6. The riots and tumults excited by the proceedings against Mr. Wilkes, and the extreme unpopularity of lord Bute, contributed to render the first years of the reign of George III. exceedingly unquiet, and to involve his majesty in many unpleasant difficulties, from the addresses, petitions, and remonstrances, which flowed in upon him, often couched in such language as it was impossible not to re-

sent, and as often insinuating what, perhaps, was not founded on truth: for it has never yet been clearly ascertained that the public actually suffered from any improper secret influence, or that the measures of lord Bute, with regard to the peace of Paris, all things considered, were impolitic or unwise. The worst feature in this peace, with regard to England, seems to have been, the failure to guard against the effects, in future, of the *family compact*, which was left in full force. Mr. Pitt had his eye constantly upon this, and, had he continued in power, would, no doubt, have continued the war with spirit and perseverance: this great minister had retired undisgraced; he received a pension indeed for himself, and a peerage for his lady. His politics, to the day of his death, continued widely different from those of lord Bute, and were constantly more popular: but the great fault of the latter seems to have been, that he engaged in public business, contrary to the bent of his own disposition, and was too sensible of his unpopularity, to undertake any measure that required much public support. All he did, therefore, *seemed* to be managed in the way of private influence, cabal, and intrigue.

7. In addition to the addresses and remonstrances alluded to in the foregoing section, the popular fervour and agitation received considerable encouragement from the letters of an anonymous writer, never yet discovered,—a writer who displayed such an extraordinary knowledge of the proceedings of the court and cabinet, and had the power of expressing himself in a style so vigorous, striking, and keenly satirical, as to demand the attention of all parties, and confound the majority of those whom he personally attacked. But the extreme severity of a concealed and unknown accuser, and the gross personalities in which he often indulged, not sparing majesty itself, threw a cloud over his writings, which can never be done away, to the satisfaction of any candid or liberal mind. Though the mention of these celebrated letters is rather anticipated in this place, as they did not publicly appear till the year 1,769, yet, as they particularly relate to the foregoing transactions, and state of affairs in the early years of the reign of George III., and long preceded the actual commencement of the war with America, the first authors of which he seemed disposed to screen, a better opportunity of introducing the subject might scarcely be found. The many fruitless, but very curious attempts that have been made, at various times, to discover the real author, have contributed, in addition to the extraordinary character of the work itself, and the political questions discussed in it, to prevent its ever sinking into oblivion. The letters of *Junius*, with all their blemishes, will probably never fail to find a place in the libraries of the British scholar, and British statesman.

8. In the prosecution of this work, it should also be noticed, that a great constitutional point came under discussion, namely, whether, in cases of libel, the jury were judges of the *law*, as well as of the *fact*. In most other cases, no such difficulty seemed to occur. In cases of murder, not only the act of killing, but the murderous intent, was submitted to the decision of the jury; and in trials for felony of every description, the course was the same. Lord Mansfield, in this case, insisted that the jury had only to decide on the fact of publication, and that the court was to determine upon the law of libel. This has generally been disputed by juries; and they have found ways of evading the difficulty, by either themselves referring the law to the judge, by a special verdict, or by pronouncing a gen-

eral acquittal. Unfortunately, libels are of that description as constantly to excite those jealousies and suspicions, from which every court of justice should be free. They affect, also, two of the highest privileges of Englishmen,—the right of private judgment, and the liberty of the press. In the case of Junius, the point in dispute was by no means so settled as to obviate future differences.

9. The year 1,764 is memorable for the commencement of the dispute between Great Britain and her American colonies; but as the history of this contest involves many curious questions of policy; as its results, in regard not only to England and America, but to the world in general, were very important; and its termination led to a total separation of the colonies from the mother country, thereby establishing a distinct state and government of European settlers in the western hemisphere, the details of it will be reserved for another section.

SECTION VIII.

DISPUTES BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN AND HER AMERICAN COLONIES. 1,764—1,783.

1. The seven years' war, terminated by the peace of Paris, or Fontainebleau, in 1,763, had been begun in *America*, as has been shown. (Sect. VI.) Great Britain, at considerable expense of men and money, had resisted the encroachments of France on the British colonies, and thereby afforded to the latter, protection, perhaps beyond what any commercial benefits, under the colonial system, could be said fully to compensate. A question therefore arose, whether the colonies might not be called upon to contribute, by direct taxation, to the relief of the general expenses and burthens of the mother country. The national debt, it was argued by the British government, was the debt of every individual in the whole empire, whether in Asia, America, or nearer home.

2. The question, however, was no sooner started than decided by administration; chiefly through the influence and on the suggestion of Mr. George Grenville, then prime-minister, who, in the very year succeeding the peace of Paris, procured the stamp-act to be passed, by which the Americans were directly subjected to a tax imposed by the British parliament, without their own consent, not immediately applicable to their own wants or necessities, and contrary to every former mode of raising money for such purposes. This was certainly sufficient to excite alarm, and lead to questions of policy and prudence; of power and right; of legislation and representation; never yet so thoroughly discussed or investigated. Hitherto, without questioning the power, government had forborne from taxing them as a matter of policy and propriety; and thus, as it was well said at the time, those two very difficult points, superiority in the presiding state, and freedom in the subordinate, had been practically reconciled.

3. The situation of America rendered these questions the more important and alarming to the mother country, in case of opposition, as having been originally peopled from Europe, in a great measure, by refugees, exiles, and persons adverse to the governments, which they had left, both in church and state, and well inclined, probably, to

assert a republican independence. Their legislative assemblies were already of the popular cast, and their feelings and spirits accordant. It must also be admitted, that upon the very ground of pecuniary or other aids, they had much to allege in respect of their beneficial returns to England, in taking her manufactures, and having assisted her in the conquest of Canada. Most unfortunately, the very grants which had been made by their assemblies, in aid of England, during the last war, were alleged as an argument (a most irritating one, undoubtedly,) of their *ability* to pay *any* imposts the parliament might choose to lay upon them.

4. As the ministry had decided hastily upon the general question, they seem also to have suffered themselves to be precipitated into some of the worst measures they could have adopted to render their novel demands palatable. Their very first tax, imposed by the stamp act of 1,764, though simple in its principle, was ill-suited to the state of America. The mere distribution of the stamps, through such a variety of different states, involved in it a thousand difficulties; and there were provisions in the act itself, which might, if at all abused or neglected, have subjected the people to unheard of vexations and oppressions. It is scarcely, therefore, to be wondered that, on its first promulgation in America, the act should have been received with the greatest indignation, and even with defiance.

5. In the mean time, the cause of the Americans was espoused by a strong party at home, a party, so far from being contemptible, as to include some of the first persons of the nation, both in rank and importance. The debates in both houses were violent, but the topics discussed, in every point of view, interesting. The friends of the Americans, if it may be proper now to call them so, obtained and swayed, for a very short period, the helm of government. In June, 1,765, the Grenville administration was dismissed, and a new one, at the head of which was placed the marquis of Rockingham, came into power, through the mediation of the duke of Cumberland. They continued in office, however, for little more than one year; but in that short space of time, the stamp-act, which had been so ill received in America, was formally repealed.

6. But the grand question relating to the right of taxation was by no means determined by this measure: a declaratory act was particularly passed at the same time, for maintaining the constitutional authority of Great Britian, in "all cases whatsoever;" and though there was certainly no design, in those who promoted the repeal, to act upon this authority, by establishing any other tax of a similar kind, yet the colonists were prepared, as much as ever, to dispute the principle, as far as it regarded taxation; and their courage and confidence at this time stood high, in consequence of the importance which had been given to them in the last war, and their emancipation from all dread of the French and Spaniards, by the cession of Canada and the Floridas. In the colony of Virginia the right of taxation was voted to rest entirely in the king, or his representative, and the general assembly of the colony. This was, undoubtedly, the usual course of things; and in this way subsidies to a considerable amount had been granted to the crown. This precedent was soon followed by others of the legislative bodies, and adopted in the general congress of New York, 1,765.

7. It was not pretended that the Americans paid *no* taxes; but a distinction was now set up, which there had been no occasion to insist upon before. To *external* taxation, through the operation of

laws of trade and navigation, enacted in the mother country, they were willing to yield submission; they had constantly done so, nor were they now disposed to resist *such* enactments; but all internal duties for raising a revenue, or supporting establishments, were held to be very differently circumstanced. Taxes of this nature were considered as being, in the very language of parliament itself, *gifts*, and *grants*. None, therefore, it was urged, could give the money of America but the people of America themselves. If *they* chose to make such grants, they might receive a legislative sanction, as in England; but legislation and taxation were distinct things. Taxation, according to the spirit of the English constitution, implying consent, direct or by representation, could not otherwise be rendered either legal or just. Local circumstances would render the representation of America, in the British parliament, impracticable; and a supposed virtual representation was no less than mockery. The representatives of England, in taxing others, taxed themselves also; but this could not be the case in regard to American imposts.

8. Such were some of the strongest reasons urged against the measure in general; but, as the *right* of taxation had not been expressly given up by any part in England, but rather insisted upon in the declaratory act, no concession short of this seemed likely to do good. The stamp-act had caused an irritation, which no *qualified* repeal could allay: internal taxation was not only resisted as an encroachment on established rights and usages, but, in resentment of such wrongs, attempts were made to hinder the further operation even of external taxation. Non-importation, and non-consumption agreements were soon entered into, and associations formed to methodise and consolidate the opposition to government. A resolution had been passed when lord North was minister, promising to desist from all taxation, except commercial imposts, whenever any one of the colonial assemblies should vote a reasonable sum, as a revenue, to be appropriated by parliament; but this had no good effect.

9. In so embarrassed a state of things, it is not very surprising that the ministry at home should have entertained wrong measures, and miscalculated the effects of the plans they were pursuing. The truth of history tends to show that, however they might be embarrassed by an active opposition in parliament, that opposition fairly forewarned them of the consequences of their meditated proceedings, which came to pass exactly as they had been foretold. But after this demand had once provoked the question of right, and that question had divided the people of both countries into two strong parties, things soon fell into that state, in which it became impossible to restore affairs to their original condition, either by perseverance or concession. Every effort of coercion was resented as an illegal encroachment; every conciliatory proposition received as a proof of alarm and timidity, and as a pledge of victory and success to future opposition.

10. It has been questioned whether independence was not in the view of the Americans from the very first stirring of the question, or even previously; but had this been the case, they would have been more prepared; their addresses to the king and parliament, on various occasions, after the commencement of the dispute, must have been fallacious to the highest pitch of dissimulation, if they had determined against all compromise from the very beginning; but, indeed, the remonstrances and complaints of General Washington, on the ill state of his army, and total want of many essential requisites,

on first taking the command, seem clearly to prove that they were driven to assert their independence by the course of things; a large portion of their fellow-subjects and countrymen on both sides of the Atlantic, judged them to be oppressed, and thus gave a character to their opposition which could not very creditably be forfeited. Upon the whole it may be considered probable that some of the most prominent and active leaders of the revolution had very early conceived the design of establishing the independence of their country; but that the mass of the people in the colonies, had no such intention until after their first successes.

11. Hostilities did not actually commence till the year 1,775, ten years from the first passing of the stamp-act. In a short time after the passing of that act, it was repealed, as has been stated; but in 1,767 the project of taxing America was revived by Mr. Charles Townshend, and from that period to the commencement of the war, both countries were in a state of the greatest agitation. Debates ran high at home, and in America their gravest proceedings were accompanied with such threats of defiance, and such indignant resentment of all innovations, as almost necessarily to bring them under the strong hand of power. But government underrated their means of resistance; when brought into a state of union, by the congress, their force was no longer to be despised; all temporizing expedients were at an end, a circumstance ill understood by the ministry at home, who lost much time in endeavouring to retrieve matters, by fruitless attempts, sometimes in the way of conciliation, and at others, of inefficient resistance. Thus, when in 1,770 many commercial duties were taken off, which the mother country had an undoubted right to impose, the concession was ill received, in consequence of the single exception of *tea*, which was continued in order to assert the rights and supremacy of Great Britain; but this was done in a manner too imperious, and without sufficient force to subdue the resentment it was calculated to excite, at such a moment. At the very breaking out of the war, ministers appear to have been by far too confident of speedily suppressing so formidable an insurrection; an insurrection which had had time allowed it to organize itself, and which had drawn upon it the attention of the whole civilized world.

12. The war may be said to have actually commenced only on the 14th of April, 1,775, though some English regiments had been sent to Boston so early as the year 1,768. In an affair at Lexington, amounting to no more than a skirmish, the English were completely worsted, a circumstance calculated to give spirits to the Americans, at a most awful and momentous period. General Washington, who had distinguished himself in the war against the French, and bore a most irreproachable character, was appointed to take the command of the American army; a post of the utmost responsibility, and requiring talents, temper, and discretion, of no common description.

13. The sword being drawn, and no hopes remaining of an amicable adjustment of differences between the crown and its transatlantic subjects, now in a state of open revolt; and the success of the first hostilities having animated the military ardour of the Americans, they proceeded, by a solemn declaration of the general congress at Philadelphia, July 4, 1,776, to declare the thirteen provinces independent; by which act America may be said to have been divided from the mother country, 294 years after the discovery of that country by Columbus; 166 from the first settlement of Virginia; and 156

from the settlement of Plymouth in Massachusetts Bay. The American Congress exercised its important functions with great energy and dignity, and the campaign of 1,776 turned out favourably for the Americans, and highly to the credit of their very able and brave commander.

14. Whether it were owing to the low opinion entertained by the government at home, of the resistance likely to be offered by the Americans, or to a dislike of the cause in which they were engaged on the part of the British commanders, it is exceedingly certain, that the English army did not obtain the advantages it was supposed it might have done, or proceed as if it were able speedily to crush the rebellion that had been raised. The American troops were every day improving, and every day deriving encouragement, either from unexpected successes, or the inactivity of the armies opposed to them. On the other hand, the English were either indulging in pleasure, when they should have been in action, or disheartened by sudden surprises or repulses, which redounded greatly to the credit of their less disciplined, and less organized opponents. In a short time, however, the war became more complicated, and opened a scene, which not only involved the continent of Europe in the conflict of the day, but probably led to changes and convulsions, as extraordinary and as extensive as ever the world experienced.

15. In the month of November, 1,776, the celebrated Dr. Franklin and Silas Deane had been despatched by congress, to solicit, at the court of Versailles, the aid and assistance of French troops. According to the former course of things, nothing could be more strange than such an application, at such a court; an application from rebellious subjects, from the assertors of republican independence, to a court celebrated for the most refined despotism, and ruling a people, heretofore the grossest admirers and flatterers of regal power; an application from persons of the simplest habits; frugal, temperate, industrious, and little advanced in civilization, to a court immersed in pleasure, gay, and dissipated, profligate and corrupt, civilized to the highest pitch of courtly refinement, of polished manners, and of splendid luxury: lastly, an application from a people who had carried their dissent from the church of Rome farther than any protestants in Europe, to a court still subject to the papal see, a cherished branch of the catholic church.

16. Extraordinary, however, in all respects, as this American mission seems to have been, it met with a cordial and favourable reception. Even the queen of France was found to espouse the cause of the revolted subjects of Great Britain, little foreseeing the handle she was giving to many keen observers of her own courtly extravagance and thoughtless dissipation. The die was soon cast; a formal treaty was entered into, acknowledging the independency of America; succour and support to a large extent promised, and officers appointed to conduct the French forces, likely, it would seem, above all others, to imbibe the spirit of freedom, which animated the Americans, and to espouse their cause upon principle. They were all noble, indeed; but in America they were sure to be taught how vain were such distinctions, if not supported by public opinion.

17. The English government was not formerly apprised of this unexpected alliance, till the year 1,778, when it received a very curious and insulting notification of it from the French ambassador. It does not appear that the aid thus obtained by the American mission, was altogether grateful to the Americans themselves, though it

had the full effect of raising up new and powerful enemies against the mother country, and involving Europe in their cause; for, through the French influence, in the year 1,779, Spain joined the confederacy against England, and, in 1,780, Holland. In the mean while commissioners had been sent from England to America, to treat for peace, but the Americans, insisting on the previous acknowledgment of their independency, rendered their attempts fruitless.

18 Whatever loss of fame, reputation, and territory Great Britain incurred in America, her arms never shone with greater lustre than on some occasions in which she was engaged during this war, with the confederate powers of Europe; in Asia particularly, she was acquiring an empire ten times greater in wealth and population, than all she had to lose in the west: but of all her achievements at this period, none, perhaps, was so conspicuous, none so glorious, as the defence of Gibraltar under General Elliot, afterwards lord Heathfield, against the combined forces of Spain and France. The preparations made to recover that important fortress for Spain, exceeded every thing before known. The ultimate success of the attempt was calculated upon as so certain, that some of the French princes of the blood, repaired to the Spanish camp merely to witness its surrender. But the heroism of the troops in garrison baffled all their designs, and the timely arrival of the British fleet completed the triumph, in October, 1,782. The siege (begun in 1,779) was entirely abandoned, with the loss of all the Spanish floating batteries, and the defeat of the combined fleets of France and Spain, by lord Howe. This action took place on the 20th of October; in the following month provisional articles of peace were signed at Paris, by British and American commissioners, and early in the ensuing year a treaty concluded at Versailles, between Great Britain, France, and Spain, to which, in February, Holland also acceded.

19. Towards the close of the war, many important discussions in parliament took place on the American affairs, in which it was found, that those who had most espoused her cause, on the question of internal taxation, and most objected to the measures of administration in the conduct of the war, differed, at the last, from each other, on the question of American independence; a difference rendered peculiarly memorable, as being the subject of the last speech and appearance in parliament of that illustrious statesman, the earl of Chatham. On April 7, 1,778, though labouring under a severe fit of illness, he appeared in his place, in the house of lords, and delivered a most animated and energetic speech, in which he strongly protested against the surrender of the sovereignty of Great Britain over her colonies; soon after, rising to reply to the Duke of Richmond, he fell back on the seat in a fainting fit, and in a few days expired, at his seat in Kent. In four years from this event, Great Britain was compelled, to yield upon this great point, and, by the peace of Versailles, ratified and concluded September 3, 1,783, the *thirteen United colonies of America were admitted to be "Free, Sovereign, and independent States."*

SECTION IX.

FRANCE, FROM THE PEACE OF PARIS, 1,763, TO THE OPENING OF THE ASSEMBLY OF THE STATES GENERAL, 1,789.

1. For the affairs of France, from the death of Lewis XIV., to the peace of Vienna, 1,738, (see Sect. I.) In the year of 1,740, owing to the death of the emperor, Charles VI., Europe was again agitated, and France, in espousing the cause of the elector of Bavaria, against the house of Austria, became involved in the war, which was terminated by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, 1,748, (see Sect III.) From the conclusion of the above treaty, to the commencement of the seven years' war, she enjoyed a state of external peace and tranquillity. But though this short interval of repose from war, was applied to the improvement of the kingdom, in no common degree, both in the capital and provinces, by the establishment of schools and hospitals, the erection of public edifices, the building of bridges, digging canals, and repairing roads; in the cultivation and improvement of many arts, the extension of commerce, and encouragement of manufactures; of silk, of porcelain, and tapestry, in particular; yet amidst all these improvements she enjoyed little of internal tranquillity. Religious disputes greatly occupied the attention of all ranks of persons, and involved the clergy, the court, the parliaments, and the people, in incessant contests, exceedingly disgraceful, and, considering the temper of the times, the advancement of human knowledge, and the progress of ideas, extremely injudicious.

2. During the reign of Lewis XIV., a fierce contention had arisen between the Jesuits and Jansenists, on certain obscure points in theology, which, after much fruitless argument, much raillery and abuse on both sides, through the influence of the Jesuits with the king, were referred to the decision of the Roman pontiff. One hundred and *one* propositions, out of one hundred and three, which were said to favour the Jansenists, in a book written by the Pere Quesnel, were, in the year 1,713, declared by the holy office to be heretical, and consequently condemned in form.* The interposition of his holiness had little effect, in regard to the restoration of peace and tranquillity. The public instrument, by which the sentence was passed on the Jansenist party, (in the language of Rome commonly called the bull "*Unigenitus*," from the first word with which it begins,) became the signal for fresh animosities, murmurs, and complaints. The people, the parliament, many prelates, and others of the clergy, violently exclaimed against it, as an infringement of the rights of the Gallican church, contrary to the laws, and a violation of the freedom of opinion in matters of religion. But the king, acting under the same influence as had induced him to forward the appeal, ordered it to be received, and in a short time afterwards died. The regent duke of Orleans found means to keep things tolerably quiet during

* The king's confessor, the P. le Tellier, happened to have told the king that this book contained *more than a hundred censurable propositions*. To save the credit of the confessor, the pope condemned a hundred and *one*, and stated the above reason for what he had done, in express terms, to the French ambassador at Rome.

his administration of affairs, nor did the flame burst out again till the year 1,750, when, through the bigotry of the then archbishop of Paris, the clergy were encouraged to refuse extreme unction to all who should not produce confessional notes, signed by persons who adhered to the bull.

3. It is easy to guess the confusion and deep distress, indeed, which so singular and intolerant a measure was likely to produce. The cause of the recusants and people in general, was, upon this occasion, strongly supported by the parliament of Paris, and other parliaments; and as in the preceding struggles the Jansenists had been thrown into prison, in this the magistrates made no scruple of committing all who refused to administer the sacrament to persons in their last moments. The Jesuits had again recourse to the king.

4. The common course of proceeding, in all disputes and contentions between the king and his parliaments, had hitherto borne the stamp of the most perfect despotism. However bold, or however respectful the remonstrances might be on the part of the latter, they were not allowed to have the least effect against the determination of the court. If these judicial bodies became too refractory, banishment ensued of course, and not the slightest regard was paid to any arguments they might allege, nor any resistance they might offer, in support of the liberties of their fellow subjects.

5. Things came to the usual crisis on the present occasion. All the chambers of parliament refused to register the letters patent by which they were commanded to suspend the prosecutions relative to the refusal of the sacraments. In the year 1,753, they were banished, and much inconvenience arose from the interruption of business, and suspension of justice; while the clergy, attached to the bull, made great boast of the victory they had obtained, and endeavoured continually to strengthen themselves more and more against their adversaries. The king often wavered, but was as often brought back by the interposition of the pope and obstinate perseverance of the Jesuits; in 1,754, however, seizing the opportunity of the birth of a second son to the dauphin, (the duke of Berry, afterwards Lewis XVI.,) he recalled the parliament, but without effecting peace. The members had been received at Paris with loud acclamations, and every demonstration of joy; their conduct had rendered them popular to an extraordinary degree, so that when commanded afresh to register the king's edicts, they again refused. This bold act of disobedience subjected them to the last extremity of kingly authority. The sovereign repaired himself to the hall of parliament, November, 1,756, and in a *bed* of *justice* (the term by which such assemblies were peculiarly designated,) finally ordered them to register the edicts in his name, which they could no longer, as the constitution then stood, refuse. Many, however, resigned their appointments, and much discontent prevailed amongst the people. It should be observed, that by this time the depositaries of the laws and advocates had begun to depart from their usual routine of technical formalities, and, animated by the examples set them, to enter largely into the general questions of law and liberty, rights and obligations, duty and privilege; they began, in short, systematically to take the part of the oppressed; they were prepared, not only to remonstrate, but to argue, debate, and openly to protest against the violation of the rights of the people.

6. The hand of a fanatic, in the year 1,757, appeared to have the effect of altering the king's mind once more. As his majesty

was stepping into his carriage, he was stabbed by an assassin of the name of *Damiens*, his object being, according to his own confession, not to kill, but to alarm his majesty, with a view of producing some change in the king's sentiments, that might dispose him to enjoin the administration of the sacraments to dying persons, without the confessional notes insisted upon; but little reliance is to be placed on any declarations of this nature. In this instance they seemed not to agree with the conduct of the assassin. That Lewis acted as he did soon afterwards, with regard to the points in dispute, in consequence of this attempt on his life, is by no means certain; but in a short time matters were accommodated with the parliament, and the archbishop of Paris, the chief fomenter of the disturbances on the part of the clergy, banished.

7. It may not be unreasonable, perhaps, to date the commencement of the revolution that broke out nearly thirty years afterwards, from this period. Scarcely any thing could have contributed more to encourage the revolutionary principles already at work, than disputes which indicated such inveterate superstition and bigotry; such determined opposition to all freedom of thought; such sophistry and intrigue; such submission to the court of Rome; such contempt of the public opinion, as expressed, for want of any better constituted organ, in the remonstrances of the French parliament; such a disposition on the part of the court and clergy to uphold the arbitrary powers of the sovereign, and this at a moment when the private life of the monarch himself was in the highest degree profligate and abandoned, and the whole system of government a system of venality, favouritism, and public plunder. These imprudent and unwise proceedings, at such a time, gave a handle to the philosophers, or *literati*, of the day, to take the reform of matters into their own hands, and by supplying them with such ample materials for the exercise of their wits, as well as their courage, laid the foundation for a revolution which (so extensive were the abuses of government) almost necessarily threw every thing into confusion, and in the end far outstepped the bounds of all sober and discreet reform. Bred up by the Jesuits themselves, and instructed in all the branches of worldly and polite knowledge, they were amply prepared to expose the weakness or wickedness of their masters, when once the veil that shrouded their deceptions was by any accident removed. They stood ready to avail themselves of any circumstances that might tend to render manifest the pride and obstinacy, hypocrisy and deceit, of an overbearing sect, who by their influence with the king, might at any time trample upon the liberties of the people.

8. These philosophers, (for so they have been with too little discrimination called,) thus raised in the estimation of an oppressed people into the rank of champions of public freedom, were unfortunately, but probably through the artful designs of their instructers, little acquainted with the true principles of religion, however familiar they might be with its abuses. In directing their attacks, therefore, against the Jesuits, they were rather anxious that their shafts should reach all the regular clergy, or monastic orders in general; nor were they at all careful how much religion itself might suffer in the overthrow of its ministers. The enemies of the Jesuits in China, Portugal, Spain, and America, had been the Dominicans and Cordeliers. It was the aim of the philosophers, in crushing the Jesuits, to crush their rivals also; they were therefore as severe against the Dominicans as against the Jesuits: the

parliament only attacked the latter. However attached Lewis XV. might be to the Jesuits, as the defenders of the catholic religion, and kingly authority, he appears to have entertained a jealousy of them, as censors of his immoral course of life, and as more attached to his son the dauphin than to himself. He therefore became indifferent to the attacks making upon them; while his mistress, the marchioness of Pompadour, and his minister, the duke de Choiseul, in order to keep the king wholly in their own power, were ready to take part against the dauphin, the queen, the royal family, and the Jesuits themselves, of whom they were, for the reasons above stated, justly suspicious. The duke de Choiseul himself, indeed, is said to have given the following account of his enmity to the order; that being on an embassy at Rome, the general of the order frankly told him, that he knew, before he came, every thing that he had said about the society at Paris, and so convinced him that what he said was true, that he could not doubt but that, through some means or other, they were able to learn all that passed, not only in the cabinets of princes, but the interior of private houses, and that so dangerous a society ought not to subsist. It is proper to state this, in order to exonerate the duke from any suspicion of having sacrified them to the philosophers, whose irreligious principles he is known latterly not to have approved.

9. In the year 1,759 the Jesuits had been expelled from Portugal, on a charge of countenancing an attack on the king's life. Under these circumstances, it is not surprising that the enemies of the order at Paris should attempt to fix on them the charge of the late attack on Lewis XV., and to attribute to them regicide principles. *Damiens* himself seemed to have taken pains to leave the matter in extreme doubt. They already were sufficiently branded in the eyes of the public, as the friends and assertors of arbitrary power, and enemies to liberty. To relieve the sovereigns of Europe from the thraldom of a sect so powerful, so artful and dangerous, became a principle of action, which the public were well enough disposed to countenance, and an opportunity only was wanting to accomplish their ruin.

10. This opportunity the Jesuits themselves provided for their enemies. Having endeavoured to escape from a demand made on them in consequence of some mercantile proceedings, in which one of their society was deeply involved, the tribunals to which the case was referred, having a handle given them by the pleadings of the Jesuits, very properly required to see the articles of their institution, hitherto, that is, for more than two centuries, kept secret from all the world. The times were well fitted for such a discovery. All men of wit and understanding, however unprincipled themselves, were well prepared to detect and expose the vulnerable parts of their great charter or INSTITUTE, (for so it was called) and to lay open to the world at large the peculiar arts and contrivances, by which they were systematically instructed to acquire an absolute dominion over the minds and consciences of men. The mysterious volume was found to contain sufficient to convict them of such bad principles, with regard both to civil government and morality, that, though the king hesitated at first to pass sentence on them, being almost as much afraid of their rivals and opponents, the Jansenists, the parliament, and the philosophers, as of themselves; yet, at length, August 6, 1,762, he was prevailed upon to issue a decree, by which they were secularized, and their possessions ordered to be sold, which was speedily, and with very few

exceptions, carried into execution in all parts of the kingdom. Efforts indeed were made to save them, as being essentially necessary to combat the attacks of the new philosophy, and to check the progress of deism and atheism; as heretofore they had interposed to confound schismatics and heretics; both the altar and the throne, it was alleged, needed their services now more than ever; but all these movements in their favour were in vain. The duke de Choiseul and the marchioness of Pompadour had the influence to procure an edict from the king for the actual abolition of the order in France, which was issued in November, 1,764, and other courts of Europe judged it wise to take the same steps. Spain and Portugal having at this time ministers, whose principles and politics much resembled those of the duke de Choiseul; the count d'Aranda, and the marquis de Pombal; the Jesuits were expelled from Spain, Naples, and Sicily, from Mexico, Peru, and Paraguay, in the course of one and the same year, 1,767.

11. The fate of the Jesuits was no sooner decided, than the parliaments, elated by the downfal of their great opponents, began to attack the arbitrary power of the king. The profligate life of the latter had withdrawn him too much from the cares of government, and opened the door to abuses in almost every department of administration; but while the parliaments were thus engaged, some very extraordinary processes at law, particularly the case of the *Calas* family at Thoulouse, of *Labarre* at Abbeville, and of the celebrated *Lally*, commander in India, in which shocking instances of fanaticism and oppression occurred, turned the eyes of the philosophers, with *Voltaire* at their head, to the defects of the French *jurisprudence*, and excited a strong feeling against both the *laws* of France, and the administrators of them.

12. The nation had sustained a considerable loss in the death of the dauphin, who, though a favourer of the Jesuits to a certain extent, exhibited a character so different from that of his father in many most essential points, as to render him very justly popular: his highness died at the age of 36, in the year 1,765; his wife, a princess of the house of Saxony, surviving him only fifteen months. In 1,770, through the agency of the duke de Choiseul, a new connexion took place between the courts of Vienna and Versailles, by the marriage of the young dauphin, afterwards Lewis XVI., with the daughter of the empress dowager, the archduchess Marie Antoinette; an union attended with such costly and splendid festivities at the time, as must excite, in every sensible mind, the most awful reflections on the dismal events which are now known to have clouded its latter days.

13. The marriage of the dauphin took place at a time when the differences between the king and his parliament had arisen to the greatest height. In the course of the years 1,770 and 1,771, the king held several beds of justice, but without at all subduing the spirit which had been raised against his edicts, and which the minister, in opposition to the chancellor, is supposed to have encouraged; a new parliament, and six councils, on the suggestion of the latter, were proposed to be constituted, to supply the place of the refractory members, who were banished; but this measure was opposed, not only by the regular parliaments, but by the princes of the blood, and several even of the very persons nominated to form and preside in the new assemblies. Several provincial parliaments, as well as

that of Paris, were suppressed, and as many as seven hundred magistrates exiled or confined.

14. The year 1,774 terminated the life and reign of Lewis XV.; he died in the 65th year of his age, having reigned 58. The latter part of his life was highly disgraceful in a private point of view, and utterly feeble in a public one; nor was his death at all regretted. He was succeeded by his grandson Lewis XVI., who had lost an elder brother in the year 1,761, his father in 1,765, and his mother in 1,767; strange mortality in one family, and too much resembling the losses in that of Lewis XIV., (see Sect. I.,) then imputed to poison; a charge revived upon this occasion, but probably entirely without foundation.

15. At the very commencement of his reign, but not without some sacrifice of his private feelings and opinions, Lewis XVI. complied with the general wish of having the old parliaments restored, and the new councils formed by the chancellor Maupeou, dissolved; a measure which seemed to diffuse an almost universal joy throughout the capital and provinces. The king had taken into his service two ministers of a disposition favourable to the wishes of the people; the venerable count de Maurepas, and M. Turgot. In conjunction with these ministers, Lewis was undoubtedly disposed to reform abuses, and promote the happiness of his people; but unfortunately the state of France, if not of the world in general, precluded all *hope* of any gradual and temperate change.

16. The American contest had commenced; a declaration of rights had appeared there, exceedingly well calculated to open the eyes of those who had not yet seen, and to encourage the revolutionary movements of those who *had* been able to detect, and were prepared to expose, the great abuses subsisting in the French government; already had the philosophers successfully attacked the Jesuits; aimed some severe blows at the monastic orders in general, as well as at the court of Rome, which had supported and abetted them in every attempt to uphold the papal and royal authority, and to stifle the complaints of the people. The tyranny thus inveighed against and attacked, had incited an opposition, much more likely to promote licentiousness than assist the cause of real and genuine liberty. The errors of catholicism, upheld by a bigoted and infatuated clergy, at variance with the only assemblies in the nation capable of any constitutional remonstrance, however ineffectual, naturally hurried the wits and freethinkers of that lively nation into extremes which every sober minded man could not fail to lament; in a very short course of time, from railing at the regular clergy, they proceeded to rail at religion, and even atheism was propagated in a way that bespoke a dreadful disregard of all principles of religion, common honesty, and honour; in works purporting to have been written by very respectable persons, *deceased*, who had holden, when alive, opinions diametrically opposite to those that were thus stamped with their names. These were among some of the most dreadful forerunners of a revolution, which, had it been properly managed, had it fallen into the hands of persons better prepared to act upon the true principles of religion and orderly government, considering the progress of knowledge and the powerful impulse which the human mind had received, was not unseasonable in point of time and circumstances.

17. It would be absurd, however, to deny the abilities of many of the persons who now stood forward to stem the torrent of abuses, and vindicate the rights of the people; several of them had wit,

and learning, and science, at command, to the highest degree; some of them had a lively sense of liberty, but they had been ill-taught on the subjects of religion and morality; they had read Locke, without imbibing Locke's best principles; they had confounded the abuses of christianity with christianity itself; they were witty and ingenious, but not comparable in wisdom and conduct with their contemporaries in Scotland, or in England; the latter were the truest friends to liberty, the best philosophers, and the best politicians, as their writings show. The celebrated Encyclopædia, which first appeared in 1,751, had supplied an opportunity for all the literati of France to express their most private sentiments on government, political economy, and the management of the finances. Amongst these the economists bore a conspicuous part; their whole system, when rightly understood, being one of liberty, whether it regarded personal rights, the free application of industry, or the exportation of corn. The author to the Introduction to the Encyclopædia, M. d'Alembert, was a man of considerable talents, but a deist in principle; his coadjutor, Diderot, an atheist.

18. The ministry of Turgot, while it lasted, was rather calculated to give encouragement to the French reformers; his own views were undoubtedly liberal and patriotic, and he had a master sincerely disposed, in all likelihood, to further any practicable plan of reform, but the course of the minister was too precipitate; his views extended to too many objects, and were such as admitted not of any speedy accomplishment; they were too mighty for the grasp of any one man; they only excited the animosity of the privileged orders, and drove them into measures of defence, more calculated to work their own overthrow than conciliate their enemies. The advocates of ancient abuses and unreasonable customs, they treated their opponents with an ill-judged contempt, and by resisting all amelioration of the present order of things, laid the foundation for a thousand impracticable systems and extravagant theories, new constitutions and schemes of government, which being severally proposed, tried, and rejected, in rapid succession, at last involved every thing in confusion, anarchy, and ruin.

19. While the seeds of revolution, if not of republicanism, plentifully sown, were beginning to germinate in France, in America the people were already acting upon the very principle of resistance to an alleged tyranny. It required only to bring the two countries, by some means or other, into contact, to spread the contagion, and revolutionize both nations as the different circumstances and characters of the people should severally determine. At the beginning of the year 1,778, a formal alliance was negotiated between the court of Versailles and the revolutionary government of America; but long before that, in the year 1,774, the American declaration of rights, on which their opposition to the English government rested, was received in France, as a kind of practical application of the theoretical schemes of the French philosophers, and might reasonably have alarmed all the courts of Europe; though the contrary was the fact. *France* and *Spain* sent help, and *Prussia* approved the American proceedings, not so much out of friendship towards the Americans, as of blind hostility to Great Britain. The king of France is said to have foreseen the ill consequences of such a war, but to have weakly given way to contrary advice.

20. The speeches of opposition, in the mean time, in the two English houses of parliament, greatly interested the people on the conti-

nent; the crowned heads, indeed, took little notice of the warning, whilst the subjects were listening attentively to the lessons of liberty promulgated by *Chatham*, *Fox*, and *Burke*. Unfortunately, the court of Versailles, at this very time, with the exception of the king, who was inclined to economy, fell into the utmost extravagancies of luxury, gayety, and dissipation; drew largely, and without any consideration, on the public treasury, though the finances were in a most depressed state; invented all kinds of novelties, and seemed bent upon exchanging the forms and etiquette of a court for trifling, though expensive amusements, not omitting such as promoted and encouraged the spirit of gambling.

21. While these things were going on at court, and too much countenanced, it is to be feared, by the queen, she received a visit from her eccentric brother, the emperor Joseph the second, which had, or appeared to have, an extraordinary effect on the Parisians; being so timed as to fall in with the new notions that had been adopted, of manly simplicity, and a republican severity of manners. The *incognito* he preserved, he carried so far as to dismiss, in a very striking manner, all the glare and pomp of royalty; the frankness of his manners, unostentatious and frugal mode of life, led the French more particularly to notice, and to condemn more severely, the thoughtless luxury and dissipation of their own court and princes.

22. The king had a hard and cruel task upon his hands; he found it impossible to check a course of extravagance and levity in his own family, which he could not, and, in fact, did not approve; in his choice of ministers, he was sure to offend one party or the other; thus, when in 1,776, on the dismission of M. Turgot, he first appointed the celebrated M. Necker, of Geneva, to the high office of supreme director of the finances, the privileged orders took the alarm; they thought they saw in the citizen of a republic, and a protestant, a decided friend to the liberal ideas that were afloat to their prejudice, and the enemy and corrector of all abuses of power and place. When, on the removal of M. Necker, the management of the finances was delivered into other hands, the people complained that their friend and favourite had been sacrificed, to intrigue and cabal, and that he had been checked and supplanted, at a moment when he was chalking out a system of reform, highly beneficial to the state, and favourable to their best interests.

23. In 1,783, M. de Calonne undertook to restore order to the finances, and his measures were exactly such as were calculated to bring matters to a crisis, and hasten the revolution which had for a long time been impending. Inclined to favour the luxury and prodigality of the court, and at the same time to provide for the deficiencies in the revenue, he boldly attacked the privileged orders, by proposing, as the best impost he could devise, a *general* land tax, fairly adjusted, and from which there should be *no exemption*. To carry this great point into execution, being no favourite with the parliament, he recommended the convocation of the assembly of the NOTABLES: (a name given to a former meeting of select and distinguished persons, in the year 1,626.) To this advice the king assented, doubtless with the best intentions, though many about the court pretended, even at that time, to foresee in this measure the downfal of the monarchy, and the ruin of the minister who had proposed it. The king gave his consent, December 1,786, and in February 1,787 this extraordinary assembly met. The minister had undoubtedly acted constitutionally in calling it, however rashly in regard to his own

interests, and the king has been supposed to have imbibed from his father a strong inclination to consult such public and national councils. In this instance, however, both the crown and the minister were deceived; the latter, who expected to be allowed to lay his plans before them in the way of commands to be obeyed, was soon displaced, on the remonstrances and demand of the very assembly he had ventured to call together; and though it did some good in the way of regulation and reform, during the short period of its sitting, which was only till the 25th of May, 1,787, it was far from answering the purposes for which it had been convoked. The members of it, however, had acquired information hitherto withheld from the public, and imbibed principles friendly to liberty.

24. On the dismission of M. de Calonne, his successor, the archbishop of Thoulouse, by an arbitrary and inconsiderate behaviour, involved his sovereign in another unpleasant contest with the parliament, who, in a moment of irritation, called for a meeting of the states-general. The credit and power of the parliaments had hitherto been chiefly owing to the disuse of these national councils, so that if it had been proposed with any sincere desire of redressing grievances, and resisting oppression, the members with whom it originated would have deserved the credit of patriotism; but probably they were swayed by motives less pure. The king, however, consented to their convocation in 1,792, but in the mean time had many unpleasant altercations with the parliament, and on one occasion was treated with so little ceremony, or rather such indignity, as it was thought, by the duc d'Orleans, as to occasion his banishment.

25. The minister, in order to break or reduce the power of parliament, thus openly at variance with him, and to get rid of the younger members, whose refractory spirit was but too apparent, projected the appointment of a *cour plenière*, consisting of persons selected by the king from the principal nobility, professions and officers of state. The court was formed, and sat long enough to enforce the ministerial decrees, but amidst such murmuring and confusion, such violent remonstrances and objections, attended with popular commotions in the capital and provinces, that in a short time the scheme was abandoned, and the minister announced to the public the king's intention of convoking the states-general in the year ensuing; he was then dismissed from his high office, and, to the great joy of the parliament and people, M. Necker was recalled.

26. The royal word had been pledge for the summoning the states-general in 1,789; and it was soon found to be a promise, which, though the chief management of the finances had passed into other and more popular hands, could not easily be abandoned. They had not been assembled since the year 1,614, and difficulties therefore were started as to the best mode of arranging them; the king even condescended to refer the matter to the decision of all the corporate and learned bodies of the realm; an extraordinary step to take, but favoured by the minister, who had it in view to give consequence to the third estate, or commonalty, in order to counterbalance the too great influence of the privileged orders.

27. This popular design of the minister, besides alarming the clergy and nobility, did not meet with the ready concurrence of the parliament; and it was even proposed, by M. d'Espresmesnil, a member who had incurred both banishment and imprisonment in the course of his opposition to the court, to adopt at once the plan of

1,614; a proposal to which the parliament acceded; but it had the effect of rendering them immediately as unpopular as the privileged orders. The claims of the third estate met with the support of a large majority of the people, as might naturally have been expected at such a moment; the commons of 1,788 were very different from those who were first summoned to meet in 1,302, upon a plan which had continued to 1,614. It was reasonable to adopt new forms; and it was therefore strongly insisted that they should, upon this occasion, in order to be upon a par with the other orders, have a double representation, and deliberate together. Had the plan of the states-general of 1,614 been adopted, the parliament would have appeared there with much greater *eclat* than in any new arrangement; this may account for the part they took upon this occasion. They entirely expected, in demanding the convocation of the states, that they should have the chief place in that assembly, and continue to enjoy the confidence of the people.

28. Such was the state of things at this memorable period; an infatuation the most surprising seemed to hurry on the privileged orders to their ruin and destruction, and with them the monarchy. Instead of bending in any manner to the force of popular opinion, or acknowledging the justice of the claims made on them, as a favoured class, they more strongly than ever stood upon their privileges, and appeared to treat with contempt that powerful and now enlightened majority that was opposed to them; they insisted more than ever upon their feudal rights, after the whole system had been virtually abolished. Conduct of this kind could not fail to stimulate the other party to deeds of violence and retaliation, in which the authority of the established laws and customs came soon to be totally disregarded, and every thing seemed to tend to ruin and devastation; when the election of the states-general was appointed to take place, both sides exerted themselves with the utmost zeal and anxiety, but the result was found to be highly favourable to the democratic party.

29. Great changes had already taken place in the character and manners of the Parisians. Since the American war, a strong disposition had been shown to imitate the English, in dress, manners, amusements, and freedom of speech; the respect which had formerly prevailed for high birth and rank was every day diminishing; persons of all classes were beginning to be raised to situations of distinction and confidence; and some of the great themselves, instead of maintaining the distance preserved by their ancestors, made approaches towards the lower ranks, by intermarriages, and the open and general encouragement of literature, trade, commerce, and agriculture; even the females began to discuss questions of state, to express a lively and sentimental concern for all oppressed persons or nations, and to wish that all the young men who could speak eloquently upon these subjects in their private assemblies, should have, as in England, a field opened to them for the more public display of their talents and abilities. It is not to be wondered that, under these circumstances, every eye should be fixed on the meeting of that great national council, whose powers had not been called into action for the long space of nearly two centuries.

SECTION X.

AUSTRIA, FROM THE CONCLUSION OF THE SEVEN YEARS' WAR TO THE DEATH OF MARIA THERESA, 1,763—1,780.

1. With regard to Austria, the seven years' war terminated with the peace of Hubertsburg, which was signed on the 5th of February, 1,763, (see Sect. VI.) and on the 27th of May, 1,764, as the fruits of that peace, the empress was gratified with the election of her son Joseph to the dignity of king of the Romans: a point of great importance to her, considering the circumstances that had retarded the elevation of her royal consort to the imperial throne. The election was most opportune, for the emperor Francis survived it but a very short time, being struck with a fit of apoplexy in the month of August of the same year, while attending the nuptials of his second son at Inspruck, in the Tyrol. Francis had borne his faculties meekly, resigning to his imperial consort the cares, as well as the state and parade of government, which, indeed, more regularly appertained to her than to himself; he obviously withdrew from the authority that seemed to have devolved to him; and if he occupied himself at all with the affairs of government, it was rather to supply its pecuniary demands from his Tuscan treasury, than for any other purposes; not so much in the way of gain, as of regular business and prudential management. Of the high estimation in which he was held by the empress there can be little doubt; her affection for him had a romantic cast, and seemed founded on what so seldom occurs, or can be expected to occur in royal marriages, an early, fixed, and solid attachment.

2. Her majesty employed herself, from the conclusion of the treaty of Hubertsburg, in ameliorating in every way possible the condition of her country; in founding philosophical academies, reforming the schools, encouraging by premiums the manufactures, and in restraining several feudal abuses: she had the opportunity afforded her of contributing to the introduction of the variolous inoculation into her dominions. She interfered, and in a very judicious manner, in the regulations regarding monasteries and nunneries, abolished the dangerous privilege of asylum, the horrible excesses of the inquisition, and the inhuman judicial process of torture. She also suppressed the society of Jesuits.

3. Considering the extreme repugnance Maria Theresa had shown to the dismemberment of her own domains on the death of her father, it must seem greatly to redound to her discredit that she could have become a party to the partition of Poland: but it may very fairly be inferred that she was driven into it. Being unable to serve the cause of Saxony she had no other alternative against the combination of Russia, Prussia, and the Porte, than to claim a part: though it is almost proved that she was drawn in by Prussia to partake of the plunder, that she might also share the odium excited by it. After the partition indeed began to have effect, and was sanctioned by the Polish delegates nominated for that purpose, Maria Theresa appears to have had no scruples in extending her encroachments, and supporting Prussia in the same attempts, to such a degree even as to provoke the interposition of Russia. It was not till the

year 1,777 that all the three parties were satisfied, and brought to an agreement in regard to limits; the portion assigned to Austria being decidedly the greatest in extent. In the same year the empress queen, by a convention, signed on the 5th day of February, obtained possession of the Buccovina, ceded to her by the Porte. Her situation was at this period particularly flourishing, her army numerous and well disciplined, her finances in good order, and her alliance with France cemented by many marriages with the Bourbon princes; but after the partition of Poland, and the connexion the empress queen seemed thus to have formed with Russia and Prussia, an anti-Austrian party sprang up at the court of Versailles, who persuaded the king to renew his connexions with Prussia, in order to secure some check against the augmentation of the power of Austria; this, however, was done without violating subsisting treaties, or breaking friendship with Maria Theresa. Lewis XVI. was much more jealous of the son than of the mother, and not without reason; the views of the former being evidently ambitious and encroaching, and highly anti-gallican.

4. In December, 1,777, on the death of the elector of Bavaria, both the emperor and empress queen laid claim to his dominions as fiefs or allodials, properly descending or reverting to one or other of them, having previously taken steps to arrange matters with their more immediate competitor, the elector Palatine; and relying strongly on the support of France, as well as on the age and infirmities of the king of Prussia: but the latter found means to interpose, by stimulating the duke of Deux Ponts, presumptive heir to the elector Palatine, to appeal to himself and the king of France against the dismemberment of the Bavarian territories, referring, in confirmation of his rights, to the treaty of Pavia, confirmed by the Golden Bull, and the treaty of Westphalia; all these authorities were disputed on the part of the emperor and empress, who insisted on the validity and legality of the arrangements made with the elector Palatine. The emperor in the mean while offered to submit his own claims to the judgment of the diet, and to mediate between his mother and the other claimants: preparations, nevertheless, were made for deciding the matter by arms, and both the emperor and king of Prussia took the field at the head of their respective forces; but the empress queen, fearing for her son, made many overtures of peace, sought the mediation of Russia and France, and, though continually thwarted by the emperor, who was inclined to war, and unwilling to submit to the dictates of foreign powers, succeeded in restoring tranquillity, by the treaty of Teschen, 1,779. By this treaty many arrangements were entered into to satisfy the king of Prussia, the elector Palatine, the duke of Deux Ponts, and the elector of Saxony. And Austria acquired territory, though of no great extent, very important in point of situation. She obtained from Bavaria the circle of Burghausen, which opened a passage to the Tyrol, and was not compelled absolutely to renounce any of her claims, though she found means to forego with credit the further prosecution of them.

France had done enough during these disputes about Bavaria, to give umbrage to the court of Vienna; she had secretly opposed the dismemberment of the electorate, she had not supplied the succours she was required to do according to the treaty of Versailles, and she had manifested a distrust of the emperor, bordering upon contempt. This conduct had the effect of throwing the latter into the arms of

England and Russia; in the contest with America, Joseph espoused the cause of England, pronounced it to be the cause of all sovereigns, and prohibited all intercourse between the subjects of the empire and the revolted colonies. With regard to Russia he took a more active part; he visited Catherine on her celebrated journey to the Crimea, and at Petersburg ingratiated himself with her to an extraordinary degree, alienated her from the old king of Prussia, and in so doing procured her assistance in promoting the advancement of his brother the archduke Maximilian to the coadjutorship of Cologne and Munster, the last wish of Maria Theresa, who had thus, in an extraordinary manner, found the means to provide, before her death, for all her numerous family. But her end was approaching: in November, 1,780, she was seized with an illness, which terminated her existence; her last days were passed in acts of devotion and attentions to her son, the emperor, and others of her family, particularly striking and grand. She displayed at this awful moment a powerful mind, a warm heart, and a truly christian fortitude: she died November 29, 1,780, in the 64th year of her age, and 41st of her reign. She was not exempt from weaknesses, but her virtues, both public and private, greatly preponderated; the former were of the most splendid cast, the latter altogether as amiable. Nine out of sixteen children survived her.

Joseph, who succeeded her; Leopold, great duke of Tuscany; Ferdinand, governor of Austrian Lombardy and duke of Modena by reversion; Maximilian, coadjutor of Cologne and Munster; Mary Anne, abbess of Prague; Mary Christina, wife of Albert, duke of Saxony; Maria Elizabeth, abbess of Inspruck; Maria Amelia, duchess of Parma; Caroline, queen of Naples; Maria Antoinetta, queen of France.

SECTION XI.

REIGNS OF JOSEPH II., LEOPOLD II., &c., FROM 1,765 TO 1,800.

1. On the demise of his father, Francis I., Joseph, who had been elected king of the Romans in 1,764, ascended the imperial throne, at the age of twenty-four, in the year 1,765, his mother being still living. It was soon apparent that he projected great changes, and the reformation of many abuses, but in pursuing these purposes he was undoubtedly too precipitate and too adventurous; his education had not been such as to fit him for such high attempts. It was impossible to unite in the way he proposed such scattered dominions; it was impossible to carry into execution all the schemes he had invented for the consolidation and improvement of the empire. In the Belgic provinces, in particular, he rendered himself extremely unpopular by the violence of his proceedings, but this was not till after his mother's death; as long as she lived she sedulously endeavoured to restrain the impetuosity and warlike disposition of her son, apprehending that he had many enemies at hand, and that notwithstanding the pretended courtesy of the king of Prussia, manifested in private interviews as well as public negotiations, he could not have much chance of success in coping with so able, powerful, and experienced an opponent; in this, perhaps, she showed some sense, though it has been doubted whether she did not too much control the ardent spirit of her son. The empress queen dying in

the year 1,780, Joseph was left to the pursuit of his own whims and projects, in many instances most extravagant, in almost all oppressive. For though there was an appearance of liberality, and much show of good, he evidently seemed to consult nothing but his own arbitrary will.

2. Had his education been such as to enable him to form a right judgment of things, had not his genius been cramped, and his reason perverted, by a choice of tutors and preceptors peculiarly ill qualified to fit him for the arduous and conspicuous station to which he had been elevated by the circumstances of his birth and connexions, he might certainly have done great good, and actually ameliorated the condition of a large and most interesting portion of the human race, for his manners were such as to have led him to a just knowledge of their wants, and a proper sense of their claims upon society. He travelled through Europe, as if he were bent on seeing the real condition of his fellow-creatures, in all ranks and situations of life; discarding all pomp and parade, he sought the society and conversation of persons far below him, and encouraged every one to give him information upon subjects most nearly touching their interests. Since Peter I. of Russia, no monarch had taken such pains to procure information, and survey every thing with his own eyes.

3. The whole extent of his dominions was supposed to contain a population of 24,000,000, distinguished however by a great variety of laws, customs, religious opinions, and language; the lower orders subject to many restrictions, attaching to the state of vassalage in which they were still held by their feudal lord and superiors. The Roman catholic religion chiefly prevailed; the clergy were wealthy, and possessed great influence. Maria Theresa had perceived what was wrong, and had shown an excellent disposition to amend matters, but had partly been compelled by circumstances, and swayed by prudence, to proceed moderately and gradually. Joseph was more impetuous; he was so eager to break down all distinctions, that, among other regulations, he insisted on having but *one* language for the whole empire, though no less than ten principal languages were spoken at that time, and in common use. Within the confines of his dominions, all his other projects were of the same description, whether good or bad, exceedingly too hasty; he broke up old systems before he was well prepared to establish new ones, and in the interval, necessarily occasioned such confusion, disgust, and trouble, as to hinder every good effect, and thwart his own purposes; in all his regulations he seemed bent upon upholding his own imperial power, not only by omitting to introduce any new checks upon it, but even abolishing old ones; he particularly displeased his Hungarian subjects, those faithful adherents of his mother, by interfering with their laws and customs, and offending some of their fondest prejudices.

4. Though attached to the Roman catholic religion, he showed great disregard of the papal authority, by subjecting the monasteries to episcopal jurisdiction, suppressing many, and reducing the numbers, both of monks and nuns, in all that were permitted to continue, with great want of feeling; he omitted to make any provision for those who were discharged; he broke through many superstitions, not rightly judging how deeply they were interwoven with the religious feelings of the people, and how much the latter therefore were likely to be affected by such violence and haste;

he abolished the privileges of primogeniture, declared marriage (heretofore regarded as a sacrament) to be only a civil contract, and rendered bastards capable of inheriting. The wisest and most truly liberal of all his innovations was that which, by a public edict, dated October 31, 1,781, established a general toleration for all the "*Acatholici*," or dissenters from the Romish religion. This and other measures of interference with ecclesiastical matters so disturbed and alarmed pope Pius VI., as to induce him to take a journey to Vienna, personally to remonstrate with the emperor. His plan was opposed at Rome, and entirely discouraged by the Austrian ministry; but his holiness persisted, and, after a visit of much form and ceremony, returned in about a month, without effecting any change in the sentiments or proceedings of Joseph.

5. In the same precipitate manner, as in other instances, he suddenly abolished feudal vassalage, without any suitable arrangements for the relief of those who must evidently suffer by such an important change of tenure; and while he prided himself upon putting an end to slavery, he subjected the emancipated to such arbitrary imposts of his own invention, as plainly to convince them that they had not in reality recovered their freedom. To countervail these errors in legislation and government, he certainly showed great merit in the encouragement he gave to arts, letters, trade, and manufactures; in founding numerous schools and universities, public libraries, laboratories and observatories; in improving the public roads, making canals, and establishing free ports. In 1,784, he obtained permission from the Porte to navigate the Turkish seas, which seemed to afford excellent means to his Hungarian subjects, who were otherwise ill situated for trade, to carry on an extensive commerce by way of the Danube; war, however, soon interrupted this accommodation; in 1,787 it came to an end.

6. In 1,781, Joseph, having concerted his plans with France, who had altered her measures towards him, probably for the very purpose, determined to break through the barrier treaty* imposed upon Austria when the Netherlands were transferred to Charles VI., and which, though undoubtedly affording security to Austria itself against the French, must be allowed to have constantly carried in it something galling to the feelings of the imperial court, as entirely dictated by the maritime powers. The fortifications of the barrier towns had now fallen into decay, and the connexion which had for some time subsisted between the courts of Versailles and Vienna, seemed to afford the emperor plausible grounds for declining to pay for the military protection of a frontier no longer likely to be disturbed. He therefore directed all the fortifications in the Netherlands to be done away, except those of *Luxemburgh*, *Ostend*, *Namur*, and *Antwerp*; while the Dutch, who had been desired to withdraw their garrisons, as no longer necessary, or entitled to pay, judged it wise to comply.

7. This violation of the barrier treaty, complied with in the last instance so easily by the united provinces, was quickly followed by fresh demands on the latter power, under pretence of more accurately adjusting the boundaries of the Dutch and Austrian Netherlands. The cession of the city of Maestricht and the contiguous district of Outer Meuse being among other things insisted upon. At length, however, and about the year 1,784, these claims

* See Coxe iv. 152, 153, &c.

all seemed to merge in one sweeping demand, to have the full and free navigation of the river Scheld, for the purposes of establishing, in favour of his Flemish subjects, a direct trade with the East Indies, and of restoring the city of Antwerp, once the emporium of Europe, to its proper degree of splendour and importance; a project, which, if it could have been accomplished without interfering with so many foreign interests, and the manifest violation of subsisting treaties, may be said to have reflected no disgrace on the policy, wisdom, or paternal care of the emperor; but it was impossible to expect that such changes should be allowed to proceed without great opposition. It was soon discovered that both France and Prussia were prepared to support the Dutch against him, and though the empress of Russia had endeavoured to deter the latter from aiding the Hollanders, the project was laid aside, and Joseph, instead of his views on the Scheld, resumed some of his former demands. In the end, however, every thing was compromised by money, through the mediation of the French king, or rather in conformity to the dictates of the French minister.

8. Another object which the emperor attempted almost at the same time, but equally without effect, was the exchange of the Netherlands for Bavaria. He had taught his mother to covet the latter country, and its acquisition would undoubtedly have rendered his dominions more compact, and given him a continued line of territory, from the frontiers of Turkey to the Mediterranean sea, while it might have relieved him from the charge of a more distant portion of his dominions, held by a very uncertain and troublesome tenure. Joseph had calculated upon overcoming all the difficulties that might arise from foreign powers; had secured the consent of Russia, and even negotiated the proposed exchange with the elector of Bavaria, (who, if it took place, was to be made king of Austrasia or Burgundy.) But Frederic II., at the age of seventy-four, again interposed: and, by forming with the several princes and states of the empire what was called the Germanic union, for maintaining the integrity and indivisibility of the Germanic body in general, effectually prevented the exchange so much desired. The principal parties to the union, which was settled and confirmed, July 1, 1785, were, besides the king of Prussia, the electors of Hanover, Saxony, and Mentz, the margrave of Anspach, and the duke of Deux Ponts. The whole scheme, indeed, was found to be so impracticable, that the emperor and elector judged it prudent to deny that any convention to that effect had taken place between them.

9. In 1,788, Joseph incurred considerable disgrace, by his attacks upon Turkey. He had projected, in conjunction with the empress of Russia, whom he had flattered by a visit to the Crimea, the total dismemberment of that empire; but blunder upon blunder defeated his purposes, and he retired from the contest blamed by all parties. In 1,789, however, hostilities were renewed, and in the battle of Rimnik, which took place in the month of September, the combined forces of Russia and Austria gained an important victory over the Turks, under the command of the grand vizier. The capture of Belgrade soon after, by the army of Loudon, completed their triumphs; but their success occasioned jealousies, which effectually interrupted the career of victory. England, Holland, and Prussia, began to be alarmed at the increasing power of Russia and Austria; and, by fomenting the troubles in the Netherlands, drew the attention of Joseph from his intended encroachments on Turkey.

10. In no part of his dominions were his attempts at reformation worse received, or worse managed, than in the Netherlands. Divided into many provinces, and each province governed by distinct laws, customs, and regulations; some secured by charter, in the enjoyment of important privileges and immunities, nothing could possibly have been thought of more vexatious than that of reducing them all under one system of administration, commencing with the sudden and violent abolition of many convents, and the suppression of many institutions, forms, and ceremonies, by long usage become little less than sacred in the eyes of the people. The courts of law, the universities and schools, were subjected to similar changes, nor did the imperial decrees spare any order of men, or any public establishment, however respectable in other respects, from undergoing this severe ordeal, and revolutionary process. Nothing could exceed the consternation and disgust with which these new regulations were received by all ranks of persons, from the lowest to the highest: for even the governors-general sided with the refractory party, and were averse from carrying into execution a system so exceedingly repugnant to the feelings of the people in general, but especially of the principal persons amongst the clergy, laity, and magistrates. Riots and disturbances took place, as might have been expected, in many parts, and France was applied to for assistance, as guarantee of their liberties. The whole authority of government seemed to be vested in the minister plenipotentiary of the emperor, count Belgioso, who had to contend alone against the formidable opposition that had sprung up; for not only the governors-general, as has been before intimated, were on the side of the people, but even the imperial minister, prince Kaunitz, who greatly disapproved the violent proceedings of his master.

11. Joseph at first assumed an appearance of rigour and inflexibility, in the pursuit of his new measures, little suitable to the actual situation of affairs. He had not foreseen so formidable a resistance, and when it occurred, he depended too much on his means for suppressing it: embarrassed as he was at the time by the war with Turkey. After much threatening, therefore, and strong marks of displeasure against the Belgic states, he found it advisable to compromise matters, for a time at least: or rather to offer to relinquish all the objectionable parts of his new system; to re-establish the ancient constitution, confirm the celebrated charter, called *La joyeuse Entree*, and submit to have the case referred to delegates on both sides. In this, however, he was not sincere, and his duplicity and arbitrary disposition becoming every day more manifest, it was impossible to prevent things coming to extremity. The example of France was contagious; the whole population became divided into two parties of patriots and royalists, and the former were soon found to be the strongest. In November, 1,789, the states declared their independence, in consequence of a meeting held at Ghent; the soldiery began to take part with the people. On the 26th of December, the states of Brabant assumed the sovereign power, in which they were soon followed by the states of the other provinces; a federal union was formed, under the title of the United Belgic States, and a congress of deputies to administer the new government, appointed to assemble on the 11th of January, 1,790.

12. Thus were the low countries sacrificed to the injudicious and hasty measures of the emperor, who was too late rendered sensible of his errors, when he found them perfectly irreparable, either in

the way of conciliation or force. He lived to see his offers of peace and reconciliation rejected with scorn and contempt, while he totally failed in his endeavours to procure the aid of foreign states to reduce his revolted subjects to obedience. In other parts of his dominions, particularly in Hungary, the same spirit of opposition to his plans had been excited, and kept up by similar measures of irritation and defiance, till the time of his decease drew near. He would then willingly have retraced his steps, and did, indeed, take some measures to conciliate the offended Hungarians; but the termination of his life was fast approaching, hastened no doubt by the opposition and ill fortune which had attended almost the whole of his political career. He had weakened his constitution in all probability by the restless life he had led, and the hardships and fatigues to which he had exposed himself in the field; but he suffered severely in his mind from the course things had taken in the Netherlands, and though he exhibited in his last moments the fortitude, resignation, and composure of a true christian, yet it is truly melancholy to think that his whole reign was passed in rendering himself and others wretched. He expired on the 20th of February, 1,790, in the forty-ninth year of his age; and leaving no issue, was succeeded in his hereditary dominions by his brother Leopold, who was also chosen emperor before the end of the year in which his brother died.

13. The reign of the emperor Leopold II. was very short, and far from a happy one. His brother had left his dominions in a wretched state of discontent and confusion: diminished, in some most important instances, and pretty generally exposed to the attacks of formidable and designing enemies. Leopold had been able to do some good amongst his Tuscan subjects before he ascended the royal and imperial thrones, but his genius and talents were judged to be unequal to the government of a mighty empire. He soon gave satisfaction however, to the aching minds of his new subjects, by restoring to many their ancient privileges, and revoking the injudicious and irritating innovations of his deceased brother. Nor did he manage his foreign negotiations ill, which, had they failed, might have involved him in inextricable difficulties. By flattering the English, and appearing to enter into their views in regard to Turkey and the Netherlands, he deterred the king of Prussia from prosecuting his designs upon Gallicia, which he wished to procure for Poland, in exchange for Dantzic and Thorn. Afterwards, by fomenting that monarch's resentment against England, who appeared to have abandoned him, he managed to form a union with the very court which at the commencement of his reign had manifested the greatest symptoms of rivalry and opposition. This accommodation with the king of Prussia greatly facilitated his accession to the imperial crown, which was conferred upon him, October 9, 1,790.

14. By very firm, but conciliatory behaviour towards the Hungarians, who seem to have imbibed at this time many of the democratic principles of the French, he not only effectually ingratiated himself with the leading persons of the kingdom, but regained the affections of the people at large, which had been sadly alienated through his brother's unwise interference with their most favourite customs and established rights.

15. Leopold did not so easily settle his disputes with the Netherlands. The mediation of England, Holland, and Prussia, had been offered, but he rather inclined to rely on his own strength, and his connexions with France, which were every hour becoming more

uncertain and precarious. He had recourse therefore to force, and succeeded indeed in re-establishing the imperial authority, but totally detached from any cordial returns of loyalty on the part of the Belgians, which became but too apparent, when his subsequent disputes with the revolutionary government of France exposed those parts of the Austrian dominions to fresh troubles and disturbances.

16. The situation of the emperor Leopold, it must be granted, was very embarrassing in the first years of the French revolution. The constraint put upon the royal family of France, to which he stood so nearly allied, and the threats denounced so openly against the queen his sister, in particular, must have greatly affected his private feelings, while many of the German states, whose rights, ecclesiastical and territorial, guarantied by the peace of Westphalia, had been invaded in Alsace, Franche Compte, and Lorraine, by the decree of the national assembly, for abolishing the feudal privileges, publicly called upon him to interpose in their behalf, as head of the empire; as he stood bound to do indeed by his capitulation with the diet, on receiving the imperial crown. In regard to the royal family of France, his first plans, in conjunction with the king of Prussia, were clearly injudicious, and injurious to the cause he took in hand. The French revolutionists were not in a state to be intimidated by angry manifestoes or threats of foreign interference. The emperor himself, indeed, did often appear cautious of embroiling his country in a war with France, but was at length probably provoked into it, by the violence of the jacobinical faction at Paris, rather than persuaded by the representations of the emigrant princes, or royal family at Paris, as was so strongly alleged. Beyond the alliance with Prussia, however, concluded on the 19th of February, 1792, the emperor Leopold can scarcely be said to have had any share in the war with France; for, on the 27th of that very month, he was seized with an illness, which in three days terminated his life, at the early age of forty-four, leaving his dominions in a state of more serious danger than when he began his reign.

17. The emperor Leopold was succeeded in his hereditary states by his eldest son Francis, born in 1768, who became emperor in the July following his father's death, and still reigns. This monarch had to begin those hostilities with France which his predecessor seems to have contemplated with considerable distrust, and he became a party to the too hasty proceedings of his Prussian ally and the duke of Brunswick, who increased the irritation and provoked the resistance of the French, by menaces extremely impolitic, considering the actual state of things. They endeavoured, indeed, to throw the blame on the emigrant princes, who, it was alleged, had misled them by false representations of the good disposition of the people in the interior of France. They expected to find a large majority ready to co-operate with them in the overthrow of the ruling faction.

18. The emperor soon found himself in a very awkward situation. Instead of invading France with any effect, he had the mortification to see his own dominions invaded by the French, under a general (Dumourier), who had boasted that he would subdue the Austrian Netherlands before the end of the year; an engagement which he in a great measure fulfilled, through the disaffection of the Belgians, who were ready enough to throw off the Austrian yoke, heedless that they were in the way of having another immediately imposed upon them still more galling and vexatious. In the

month of November, 1,792, all subjection to the imperial authority was openly renounced in the very capital of the Netherlands, and the French allowed to enter the city in triumph. While these things were going on in Flanders, Germany itself was invaded by the French general, Custine, Mentz taken, and heavy contributions levied in the towns of Worms and Frankfort.

19. Early in the year 1,793, the Austrians under general Clairfait and the prince of Saxe Coburg, obtained advantages over the French, at Aix-la-Chapelle, which were followed by the capture of the towns of Valenciennes and Conde, in conjunction with the British army under the command of the duke of York. A separation of the two armies afterwards took place, which was attended with unpleasant circumstances, and seems to have happened very contrary to the desire and wishes of the Austrian commanders. The troops under the duke laid siege to Dunkirk, but were unsuccessful in their attempts against the place, being obliged to abandon the undertaking with the loss of the greatest part of their artillery and stores.

20. In the year 1,794, the allied armies again acted in conjunction against the French under general Pichegru, the emperor himself having joined the camp, but the overwhelming power of the French baffled all their attempts to defend the Netherlands, which fell entirely into the hands of the enemy.

21. The share which the emperor Francis II. had in the final dismemberment of Poland, 1,795, will be shewn in the history of that unhappy country. The king of Prussia having gained great advantages by this transaction, declined any longer assisting the allies against France, and in open violation of his engagements with England, made a peace with the French government, April 5, 1,795, to the great disgust of the confederates.

22. The contests between the armies of Germany and France, in the years 1,796, 1,797, were carried on with the greatest vigour, skill, and bravery, on the Rhine, in Suabia, in the Tyrol, and in Italy. In 1,796, the archduke Charles, brother of the emperor, acquired great glory by checking the progress of the two celebrated French generals, Jourdan and Moreau: and, though compelled to retire before Buonaparte, in 1,797, and to subscribe to the peace of Campo-Formio, as will be related elsewhere, his credit with the army remained undiminished, and his reputation as a general unimpaired. On the renewal of the war in 1,799, at the instigation of the Neapolitan court, the Austrians were assisted by the Russians, and at the close of the eighteenth century, the tide of affairs seemed to be turning greatly against the French, when a new revolution in the fluctuating government of that disturbed people, suddenly changed the face of things, as will be shewn in our continuation of the history of France.

SECTION XII.

FRANCE, FROM THE OPENING OF THE ASSEMBLY OF THE STATES-GENERAL, 1,789, TO THE DEATHS OF THE KING AND QUEEN, 1,793.

1. The states-general met, May 5, 1,789. The king's speech has been much admired, as the address of an upright, humane, and

patriotic prince, to a respectable assemblage of his subjects, by whose political and legislative exertions he hoped to improve the state of the nation. The nobles and clergy had expressed a willingness to forego their pecuniary privileges, but there were other grounds upon which they seemed likely to be at variance with the third estate. The latter were for obliterating all traces of distinction in their legislative capacity; while the former were so imprudent as to take some steps, not only indicative of an invincible attachment to such distinctions, but bearing an air of arrogance and defiance in them, ill suited to the times. The very costume adopted on the occasion was calculated to render the representatives of the commonalty almost ridiculous in the eyes of their countrymen. The nobles and clergy were distinguished by robes peculiarly rich and brilliant; but the whole of the third estate were directed to appear in the common and antiquated black dress of the members of the law, though of various callings and professions. As soon, however, as the commons had verified their powers and were prepared to act, without waiting for the concurrence of the other two orders, it was proposed by a M. Le Grand, and seconded by the Abbe Sieyes, to call their meeting the "*National Assembly*," as forming a national representation *one* and *indivisible*. This was eagerly adopted by a majority of the members, but objected to by the king; at length, however, some of the clergy and nobles having joined the *third estate*, the king himself condescended to approve and sanction the union, a matter of great triumph to the popular party, and which, in fact, made them the arbiters of the destiny of France.

2. On the 11th of July, 1789, the king thought it necessary to dismiss M. Necker; many tumults and insurrections were the consequence of this unpopular proceeding; the Bastile state prison, once crowded with the victims of arbitrary power, but at this moment, and under the mild reign of Lewis XVI., almost empty, was besieged by the mob, taken, and razed to the ground. After many tumults of this kind, the king judged it expedient to comply with the wishes of his people, and to recall the discarded minister; he was also induced by circumstances, to yield to another demand of more importance, namely, the dismissal of all his troops from the environs of Paris and Versailles. In the meanwhile, the marquis de la Fayette, who had been engaged in America, and there imbibed a spirit of liberty, was fixed upon to take the command of the new militia or city guard. Alarmed at the appearance of things at this period, many nobles, and even one of the king's brothers, left the kingdom. This had undoubtedly a bad effect; it not only left the king more exposed to the violence of faction, but seemed to betoken a disregard of the liberties of their country, and a settled purpose of invoking foreign aid.

3. The national assembly soon divided itself into two parties; the *aristocrats*, or such as not only favoured royalty, but to a certain extent, the privileged orders, nobles, and clergy; and the *democrats*, or advocates of freedom; the sworn enemies of all oppressive and distinct privileges; they were also distinguished into *royalists* and *patriots*. Among the former we may reckon the *moderates*, whose speeches in the assembly are justly to be admired, for their extreme good sense and rational politics. Of the nobles, it should be observed, that the most obnoxious were those who had purchased their nobility, amounting to many thousands. Of the ancient, and hereditary nobility there were, it was comput-

ed, not more than two hundred families in the whole kingdom when the revolution began, nor were their privileges and exemptions by any means so great as was pretended. It was soon seen which party was the most powerful; on the 4th of August, 1,789, decrees were passed, as if with the full consent of the whole assembly, for the abolition of the privileges of the nobles and clergy, provinces and towns; while persons of every rank and description were pronounced to be eligible to all civil, military, and ecclesiastical appointments. The royal family were exposed to horrible insults and indignities at Versailles, and at length almost forcibly conveyed to Paris; in consequence of which removal, the assembly also adjourned its sittings to the capital, a fatal step to take, as it could not but expose them to the tyranny of a faction, and the fury of the Parisian mob. Among the measures adopted at this period, the most important were those which placed all church property at the disposal of the nation, dissolved all monastic establishments, feudal privileges and rights, and suppressed the provincial parliaments and assemblies, by artfully dividing the kingdom into 83 departments, the work of the Abbe Sieyes; by this act the very name of province was obliterated from the French vocabulary, and with it all peculiar rights, laws, and jurisdictions; all provincial governors, commandants, sub-delegates, presidents, and tribunals of election; mayors, echevins, jurats, courts of aid, chambers of accounts, &c. Every thing was at this time transacted in the way of violence and *destruction;* every law voted by acclamation, with little patience and less judgment; thus, when it was proposed to abolish all titles and hereditary distinctions, armorial bearings, liveries, &c. the democrats would scarcely suffer the question to be debated, and it was carried by a large majority, though so many members of the assembly must have been deeply affected by it.

4. The national assembly was slow in preparing a constitutional code, particularly in deciding upon the three following questions. Whether such assemblies should be permanent or periodical? composed of one or two chambers? and whether the king's *veto* should be absolute or suspensive? While these things were in agitation, the king had attempted to rescue himself from the trammels imposed upon him, by a timely escape from Paris; but he was stopped on his journey, and compelled to return. At length the assembly terminated its labours; a constitutional act was prepared and presented to the king, of which, after an interval of ten days, he declared his acceptance. Had he been free, it is impossible that he could have given his sanction to a measure which subjected the monarch to the will of a domineering assembly, and was ill-calculated to repress the efforts and designs of a licentious and restless faction. The assembly, however, having thus completed its task, was dissolved by the king on the 30th day of September, 1,791, being succeeded by another convention, denominated "the legislative assembly," whose deliberations were confined to the space only of one year; none of the members of the former assembly being eligible to the latter.

5. In the year 1,792, Austria and Prussia, in consequence of a declaration and agreement (according to all accounts imprudent) determined upon at Pilnitz, in the preceding year, began to interfere in behalf of the king and royal family, but so far from alarming the revolutionary party in France, their interposition seemed only to have the effect of instigating it to acts of greater violence and more determined courage. War was without scruple declared

against the king of Hungary and Bohemia, in the month of April, and every preparation made to resist all counter revolutionary projects. Sweden and Russia had shewn a strong disposition also to interfere; but the assassination of the Swedish monarch, Gustavus III., in 1,792, and the distance of Russia from France, prevented both those countries engaging in actual hostilities. In the mean time, Paris became a scene of dreadful confusion; every day some new faction seemed to arise to baffle the attempts of those who had yet wisdom or temperance enough to prevent things coming to an extremity. The legislature was at the mercy of the Parisian clubs, and of the mobs, too freely admitted into the galleries of the assembly. The king was insulted in the grossest manner for having ventured to interpose his suspensive negative to the passing of two severe decrees; one against those who had emigrated, and the other against the clergy who declined taking the civic oath. M. la Fayette, who had been appointed to take the command of the army, wrote from his camp to admonish the national representatives to rescue the country and the king from the factious designs of the enraged jacobins; but in vain; it served only to exasperate still more the anti-royalists, and to bring fresh troubles on the royal family. The design of the factious seems to have been, either to intimidate the king to a degree of abject submission, or to provoke him to act against the constitution in a manner that might render him liable to the vengeance of the people. The march of the Prussian army, and a threatening manifesto issued by its commander, the duke of Brunswick, irritated the violent party into a frantic determination to abolish royalty. The king was supposed, or represented, to be confederate with the enemy, and deeply engaged in a plot with his emigrant brothers and relatives, to counteract the revolution.

6. A dreadful attack was made on the palace in the month of August, the particulars of which are too disgusting to dwell upon; but it completed the triumph of the demagogues; for in compelling the king's guards to act on their defence, they had it in their power to charge the king himself with having made war upon his people. Nothing was now heard but the cry of "liberty and equality." The "chief of the executive power," as they chose to denominate his majesty, was formally suspended from his functions, and, under the pretence of *guardianship*, committed with his queen and family to the temple.

7. The assembly appeared from this moment to be as much in the power of the faction as the king. The period has been too justly distinguished by the appropriate title of "the reign of terror." The execrable Robespierre was in reality at the head of affairs, and it would be impossible adequately to describe the atrocities of his merciless career. It would exceed the limits of this work to enter far into particular details. La Fayette abandoned the army, as unwilling to serve under such masters; his conduct has been arraigned, as reflecting at once upon his loyalty, his patriotism, and his courage; it was thought that with the army so much at his disposal as it seemed to be, had his principles been such as he pretended, he would have marched back to Paris, and saved his country and his king from the ruin with which they were threatened. In the meanwhile the combined troops of Austria and Prussia were approaching the frontiers; differences subsisted in the army; nor was general Dumourier, who had succeeded to the command on the retirement of La Fayette, generally confided in, either by the

army or the faction. To lessen the number of aristocrats, many suspected of belonging to that party were hurried to prison, where, without scruple, and with such barbarity as is not to be paralleled in the records of history, they were almost all assassinated, to the amount, as it has been estimated, of not less than five thousand. This happening on the second of September, all who were concerned in it, as principals or abettors, were denominated *Septembrizers.*

8. These were but preludes to a catastrophe, if possible, still more shocking; a murder perpetrated with a studied deliberation, and with all the mockery of legal forms and ceremonies. However hastened by the hostile approach of the confederate powers, and the injudicious threats they threw out in case any violence should be offered to the king's person, nothing could possibly excuse the perversion of justice, and gross inhumanity which marked the trials of the king and queen; nothing exceed the melancholy circumstances of their imprisonment and execution! On the 11th of December, 1,792, the king appeared before the convention, to hear the charges preferred against him. "You are accused," said the president, "by the French nation, of having committed a multitude of crimes, for the purpose of re-establishing your tyranny by the destruction of liberty." He then entered into a few particulars. The king, with great dignity, replied, "No existing laws prohibited me from doing as I did; I had no wish to injure my subjects, no intention of shedding their blood." Further accusations were pressed upon him, from which he defended himself with the same firmness and simplicity of language, the same coolness and intrepidity of mind. He declared boldly, that his conscience fully acquitted him of the things laid to his charge, and appealed to the whole course of his behaviour and carriage towards them as king, to exonerate himself from the horrid imputation of having been eager and ready to shed the blood of his people. This charge, indeed, rested solely on the events of the 10th of August, when the rabble broke into the palace of the Tuilleries, and not only menaced the lives of the king and his family, but are allowed to have begun the sanguinary part of the conflict, by the murder of five of his Swiss guards. It was not till after this event that the rest of these faithful adherents fired upon the aggressors, and drew upon themselves the vengeance that terminated so fatally, for they were all destroyed.

9. It having been resolved that the judgment and decision of the case should rest with the national representatives, the convention met on the 15th of January, 1,793, to discuss the question of the king's guilt, upon the charges so loosely and so maliciously brought against him, when it appeared that only thirty-seven were disposed to think favourably of his conduct. Six hundred and eighty-three members, with little or no hesitation, some, indeed, with the most cruel eagerness and exultation, pronounced him guilty. An attempt was made to procure a reference of this matter to the people; but it was over-ruled by a majority of one hundred and thirty-nine.

10. Having determined the question of his guilt, that of his punishment became the next subject of discussion. It was proposed to decide between detention, banishment, and death. After a debate, in which the amiable monarch seemed to be regarded by many as despotism personified, no less than three hundred and sixty-one, or, according to some accounts, three hundred and sixty-six members,

voted peremptorily for death; and on a further question, whether the execution of the sentence should be suspended or take place immediately, the votes for the latter amounted to three hundred and eighty against three hundred and ten. The king was to be informed of the result of their proceedings, and to suffer death in twenty-four hours afterwards. The advocates for the king were allowed to address the assembly, and to move an appeal to the people, but without effect. On the motion of Robespierre, the decree was pronounced irrevocable, and the king's defenders debarred from any further hearing.

11. On the 21st of January his majesty, having previously taken leave of his family, and performed the services of devotion, was conveyed to the place of execution; nothing could exceed the pious resignation with which he submitted to the cruel and unjust sentence which doomed him to death, and during his passage to the square of the revolution, where the guillotine was erected, he betrayed no symptoms of fear or anger. On the scaffold, he manifested a strong desire to address the crowd; but the drums were made to sound louder, and he was rudely bidden to be silent; in a moment after, his head was severed from his body, and shewn to the people as the head of a tyrant and a traitor!

12. History, both public and private, has borne ample testimony to the falsehood of the charges brought against him; every nation in Europe concurred in condemning the conduct of the French regicides; and though, in exciting the resentment of fresh enemies, England and Spain particularly, it threatened the ruin of the new republic; it appeared by no means to have satisfied the blood-thirsty vengeance of the ruling faction. The democratic, or republican party, had long been split into two divisions, and their opposition to each other seemed at this time to be at the height. Brissot, who headed the *Girondists*, (so called from the department of *Gironde*, which some of that side represented,) was still alive; Robespierre, Danton, and Marat, directed the movements of the opposite faction; for some time previously called the *Mountain*, from the *elevated seats* they occupied in the hall of the convention.

13. It seemed now to be a question which of these turbulent parties should obtain the ascendancy; and a contest of this nature was not likely to be decided without a much larger effusion of blood. "The reign of terror" still continued, and many more victims were preparing for the stroke of that fatal instrument, which seemed to have been timely invented for the quick and incessant course of decapitation and destruction now adopted. Had any thing been capable of producing domestic union, it might have been expected, from the formidable confederacy of foreign powers, armed against the nation; for, in addition to Austria and Prussia, England, Spain, and Portugal, were at open war with France; while a royalist party had arisen within its own confines, of rather a formidable description, considering the strength of the enemies without, and the distracted state of the government.

14. Though such was the situation of the country, with regard to foreign powers, and royalists at home, the struggle between the Girondists and Robespierrean faction was carried on at Paris with the utmost violence and precipitation; but the Mountain prevailed. The leaders of the Brissotines were arrested and confined in the month of May, and on the 31st of October following, all executed. Brissot himself saw sixteen of his party guillotined before it came to

his turn, and four were beheaded afterwards. Many of them were persons of considerable talents, and not destitute of private virtues, had they lived in less turbulent and trying times.

15. Horrible as this execution must have been, one still more appalling had engaged the attention of the people, on the same spot, only fifteen days before. Loaded with insults, and deprived of every possible comfort or consolation, "the widow of Lewis Capet," as they chose to call their queen, (a princess of Austria, and daughter of the high-minded Maria Theresa,) had not been suffered to enjoy one moment of repose from the day of the king's execution; preparations were soon after made for her own trial, which, if possible, was conducted in a manner still more revolting to every feeling mind, than that which had been adopted in the case of her unhappy consort. Her guilt and her punishment were as soon decided upon; but even after this sad act of vengeance and injustice, shocking circumstances of ignominy, degradation, and persecution took place, scarcely to be credited as the acts of any portion of a people at all advanced in civilization; she was cast into a dungeon, and delivered into the custody of a gaoler seemingly selected on purpose to insult over her misfortunes, and aggravate her sufferings. On the dreadful day of her execution, she was conveyed to the scaffold in a common cart, with her hands tied behind her, amid the brutal shouts of an infuriated populace. Thus died, in the 38th year of her age, the queen of one of the greatest kingdoms of the earth; a princess, who, though not entirely free from faults, had, till this fatal revolution, lived in all the splendour and luxury of a court, the marked object, not only of *admiration* and *adulation*, but of *homage* so profound, and, in some instances so *servile* and *ensnaring*, as to palliate and account for all the errors of her short, but eventful life.

SECTION XIII.

GREAT BRITAIN, FROM THE CONCLUSION OF THE AMERICAN WAR, 1,783, TO THE PEACE OF AMIENS, 1,802.

1. From the peace of Versailles, in 1,783, to the commencement of the year 1,793, Great Britain kept free from war, though not without some disputes with foreign powers, and occasional calls upon her to interpose, as an ally or mediatrix, in the affairs of other states, Holland particularly. Soon after the termination of the American war, extraordinary changes in the administration took place. The ministry that negotiated the peace, at the head of which was the earl of Shelburne, was displaced, and succeeded by what was called the *coalition* ministry, from the extraordinary circumstance of Mr. Fox and lord North becoming joint secretaries of state, after an opposition peculiarly animated, and a positive declaration on the part of the former, that they differed so in *principle* as to render such an union for ever impracticable.

2. The unpopularity of such an apparent dereliction of principle, as might reasonably be expected, rendered their continuance in power extremely precarious, and it was not long before their removal was effected, in consequence of a bill brought into parliament by Mr. Fox, to regulate the affairs of India. The measure was judged to be fraught with danger to the constitution, by throwing too much power into the hands of a board of commissioners, to

be chosen by parliament, and though it passed the commons, it was thrown out by the lords, and the ministry dismissed.

3. Mr. Pitt, a younger son of the great lord Chatham, now came into power, not in any subordinate situation, but as premier, though at the early age of twenty-four, and under circumstances peculiarly embarrassing, for he had long to contend against a majority of the house of commons, who threatened to stop the supplies, and effect his removal, as not enjoying the confidence of the people. This being judged too great an interference with the prerogative, and many addresses being presented to the king to retain him in his service, the parliament was at length dissolved, and the issue turned out to be extremely favourable to the choice of his majesty.

4. The affairs of India manifestly requiring the interposition of government, Mr. Pitt, as soon as possible, procured a bill to that effect to be passed, according to which a board of control was to be appointed, not by parliament, but by the crown. Though this increased in some degree the influence of the latter, it was judged to be far less hazardous than the proposal of Mr. Fox, which threatened to throw such a power into the hands of the minister and his friends, as might enable them to overawe the sovereign, and render their removal almost impracticable. Mr. Pitt's bill, also, was found to interfere far less with the chartered rights of the company. It passed the lords, August 9, 1,784.

5. Another measure of considerable importance occupied the attention of the minister, during the year 1,786, which was expected to contribute greatly to the support of public credit. This was the establishment of a new sinking fund, by appropriating the annual sum of one million, to be invariably applied to the liquidation of the public debt. At a subsequent period, a sinking fund of still greater importance was established, by which every future loan was to carry with it its own sinking fund. This was proposed to the house in 1792, and readily adopted; it consisted in raising one per cent., besides the dividends upon every new stock created, to be applied by the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt, in the same manner, and under the same regulations as the original million.*

6. From the commencement of the year 1,786, to the year 1,795, the attention of the British parliament was in a very extraordinary manner occupied with the charges brought against Mr. Hastings, governor-general of Bengal, in February, 1,786. Mr. Burke, whose mind had been long affected by the abuses practised in India, by the servants of the company, had appeared for some time to have fixed his eye upon Mr. Hastings, as a fit object of prosecution; and he now moved for papers to substantiate the charges upon which he meant to impeach him. These charges being discussed in parliament, during the session of 1,787, and referred to a committee, were confirmed by the house of commons, on the 9th of May, and the articles of impeachment exhibited to the house of lords, on the 14th; in consequence of which Mr. Hastings was taken into custody, but, on the motion of the lord chancellor, admitted to bail. The trial did not commence till February 15, 1,788, was continued not only through the whole of that parliament, though very slowly, but after much debate, determined to be pending on the commence-

* By this provision every loan would have its own fund, which would operate at compound interest, and discharge the debt in forty-seven years at the longest, from the time it was first incurred.

ment of the new parliament, 1,790, and not brought to a conclusion till the month of April, 1,795.

7. The question whether the impeachment abated on the dissolution of parliament, appearing to involve a constitutional point of the highest importance, was discussed with singular attention, and a large display of legal and parliamentary knowledge. The law members of both houses were never perhaps so divided in their opinions; but the numerous precedents cited by Mr. Pitt seemed clearly to decide the question as follows: that though legislative processes are abated by prorogation or dissolution, it is not so with regard to judicial proceedings. It appeared to be a nice and curious question, and, as affecting the responsibility of ministers, its decision may be regarded as singularly important.

8. Though in the course of the proceedings and prosecution of the various charges against Mr. Hastings, the eloquence of the managers exceeded all that could have been expected, yet never perhaps were so great talents employed with less success; a trial of such seeming importance, so strangely protracted; or a case of impeachment brought to an issue so little answerable to the expectations that had been excited. It would be impossible to deny that flagrant and enormous abuses had been committed in India during the period in question, yet, the very length of the trial made it appear to most persons in the light of a *persecution*, and that of an individual to whom the company and the nation stood highly indebted for many eminent services. As it ended in the acquittal of Mr. Hastings, that gentleman may be presumed innocent. One good, however, seems to have arisen from the investigation; all succeeding governors-general have certainly been more circumspect and correct in their proceedings.

9. In the course of the year 1,787, great disturbances having taken place in the united provinces, fomented by the French, and threatening the dissolution of the stadtholderate, an alliance was formed between the courts of St. James's and Berlin, to protect the rights of the prince of Orange, and resist the interference of the French. Preparations for war took place, but the Prussian army decided matters without any active co-operation on the part of Great Britain. The alarming state of things in France, appeared to deter the court of Versailles from rendering that assistance to the malecontents of Holland, which the latter had been taught to expect

10. During the cession of 1,788, the attention of the house of commons was first called to the horrible circumstances attending the African slave-trade. It is quite surprising that such a traffic should have been so long carried on, without exciting the resentment of every sensible mind, and disgusting the feelings of a civilized people; unfortunately, when first noticed, it was found to be so deeply interwoven with the interests of our settlements in the West Indies, and to depend so much on foreign states, as well as our own, as to render it almost necessary to proceed slowly and cautiously, though it was impossible not to be horror-struck with the information laid before the house, particularly in regard to what was called the middle-passage, or transportation of the unhappy Africans, from their native shores to the several islands. As it would be inconsistent with the nature of such a work as the present, to enter into the detail of the proceedings upon this very interesting subject, which took up a long time, and can scarcely now be said to

be terminated, it may be sufficient to note, that, after continual renewals of the subject in the two houses of parliament, yet, owing to many untoward circumstances, it was not finally abolished till the year 1806, nor has it even yet been in the power of any ministry, or any of our diplomatists, effectually to prevent the trade, as carried on by foreign states, though every person of humane feelings must devoutly wish and desire that it should be so. It must, however, always redound to the credit of our own country, that the voice of compassion and mercy was first heard amongst us, and that the first arm stretched out to save and to rescue a large proportion of our fellow-creatures from the most abject slavery and cruel tortures that ever were inflicted, was the arm of a Briton.

11. The parliament being prorogued on the 11th of July, 1788, to the 20th of November, was compelled to meet on the day appointed, by circumstances of a most distressing kind. His majesty, probably through excess of business, to which he was known to devote more time and labour than could well be consistent with his health, was seized with an illness which totally incapacitated him from discharging the functions of his high and exalted station. It must appear strange, that by the laws and constitution of the realm, so little provision had been made for a catastrophe by no means out of the line of probability, that it became a question into what hands the suspended executive had devolved, and this led, as might be expected, to very warm and important debates in parliament. Though the prince of Wales, being of full age, did not personally claim the regency as matter of right, his party did. The minister, Mr. Pitt, contended that it belonged to parliament to supply the deficiency; and this question being stated, it was judged expedient to debate it, and settle it by vote. The decision upon this occasion was entirely in favour of the power of parliament to appoint the regent, none doubting, however, that the heir apparent was the fit object of such appointment. Other questions were agitated at the same time, of equal importance; particularly how far restrictions could be imposed by parliament, in regard to the exercise of prerogatives, the *whole* of which were reasonably enough supposed to be essential to the government of the country. This question also was decided in favour of the minister, who had proposed restrictions, with an understanding, however, that they could only apply to a temporary suspension of the kingly power. In this case also, the care of the king's person was assigned not to the regent, but to the queen. One great difficulty remained after all the discussions upon the regency. It was doubted how the lord chancellor could be empowered to put the great seal to a commission for opening the sessions of parliament, so as to restore "the efficacy of legislation;" it was decided that he might be directed to do it in the name of the king, by authority of the two houses.

12. Fortunately for the public, this first illness of his majesty was of so short duration, as to render unnecessary all the changes that had been contemplated. Early in the year 1789, the lord chancellor was able to announce to the houses of parliament, the perfect recovery of the king. Nothing could exceed the transports of joy with which this intelligence was received throughout the whole kingdom. A national thanksgiving was appointed, and his majesty went himself in great state to St. Paul's, to offer up his grateful devotions on the event. The illuminations on the occasion were so general, that it is probable, from the accounts given of

them, that scarcely a cottage in the most remote parts of the island was without its show of loyalty and affection. The appearance of the metropolis, in particular, was most extraordinary, and notwithstanding the immense concourse of people that continued almost the whole night in the streets, and the crowded throng of carriages and horses, so strong a disposition was shown by all ranks and descriptions of persons to conduct things peaceably, that fewer accidents occurred than were ever known before in similar cases.

13. It should be noted, as a matter of general history, that had not his majesty recovered so opportunely, difficulties of an extraordinary nature might have ensued, from the different proceedings of the two legislatures of Great Britain and Ireland. While in the former it was decided that the prince could not assume the regency, as matter of right, and that the parliament had a power to impose restrictions, in Ireland, his right appeared to be acknowledged by the two houses agreeing to address him, to take upon him immediately the government of that kingdom, during the king's incapacity, and with the usual powers of royalty.

14. In the year 1789, the proceedings in France began to occupy the attention of Europe, and of England in particular. A struggle for freedom seemed to be so congenial to the spirit of the people of the latter country, that it is not to be wondered that the commencement of so extraordinary a revolution should excite the strongest sensations. Unfortunately the abuses in the French government were so many, and some of them so entirely contrary to every principle of reason and equity, that it soon became apparent that nothing less than a radical change, and revolution of every existing institution and establishment, would satisfy the disturbed minds of that volatile people; minds unhappily prepared not merely to resist oppression, but to throw off every restraint of religion and morality. Such an example, therefore, required to be watched and guarded against, in a country whose free constitution supplied its own means of reformation in every case of necessity, and where tumultuary proceedings could only lead to ends the most fatal and deplorable. Mr. Pitt seemed aware of this, and though his measures of precaution were supposed occasionally to press too hardly on the liberty of the subject, it must be admitted that a very improper intercourse was at times carried on between the several popular associations in England and Ireland, and the national assembly of France. The object of the latter, in its replies to the addresses presented to it, being, according to all reasonable interpretation of the terms used, to invite and encourage the discontented of all countries to follow their example, which was every day becoming more violent and anarchical. This was not all; emissaries were employed to propagate their principles in other countries, many of whom came to England, and met with an encouragement not to be overlooked by a government properly sensible of the dangers to be incurred by any adoption of such sentiments and principles, in a country so very differently situated from that of France. England had long ago done for herself what France was now attempting; and though no such changes and revolutions can be expected to take place without some violence, yet England had *passed through this ordeal*, and accomplished her point a whole century before France began to assert her liberties. It was little less than an insult to every true Englishman, therefore, to attempt to stir him up to such violent proceedings as had already been countenanced and sanctioned by the French revolutionists; but

that such attempts were making, could not but be too obvious. On the 19th of November, 1,792, the national assembly passed a decree, that they would grant fraternity and assistance to all who might wish to recover their liberty. This was two months after they had proclaimed the eternal abolition of royalty, and imprisoned the king; after they had declared hereditary nobility to be incompatible with a free state; and thus, by implication, declared that England and most of the other states of Europe were not free. It was afterwards proved, by their own acknowledgment, that before any declaration of war, more than a million sterling had been sent to England from the national treasury of France, for purposes strictly revolutionary. No country was free from these political disturbers; even general Washington, as president of the United States of America, was obliged to publish letters patent, to withdraw his countenance from the accredited French ministers in that country, who had grossly insulted him as head of the executive government.

15. In the year 1,790, an unpleasant dispute arose between the courts of St. James's and Madrid, which had nearly involved the two countries in a war. It related to a settlement on the north-western coast of America, which had been attempted by some subjects of Great Britain, at Nootka Sound, for the carrying on a fur trade with China. The Spaniards, conceiving this to be an invasion of their rights, under a claim to these distant regions the most extravagant and absurd, with great precipitation attacked the English settled there, took the fort which had been erected with the consent of the Indians, and seized upon the vessels. It was not possible to pass over so great an outrage; but by the vigorous and timely preparations made to procure reparation, and the little hope of assistance to be derived from France, in case things should come to extremities, the Spanish court was brought to terms before the expiration of the year; and not only every point in dispute ceded to the English, but many advantages granted with regard to the navigation of the Pacific ocean.

16. In the course of the same year, the British court interfered successfully to restore peace between Austria and Turkey, and was further instrumental, though not without some hindrances, in reducing the revolted Netherlands to the dominion and authority of the former power. Her attempts to mediate between Russia and the Porte, were by no means so successful, and had nearly, indeed, involved the nation in war, for an object of very little importance in the eyes of the public at large, though the minister seemed to think otherwise. In consequence, however, of the opposition he met with, he was induced to forego the plan he had in view, of preventing Russia getting possession of the town of Oczakow, and a peace was concluded with that power at Yassi, January, 1,792.

17. Towards the close of the same year, after the king of France and his family were in a state of confinement, many attempts were made by the national assembly to ascertain the views of England with regard to the confederacy formed against her, and the question of peace or war seemed nearly brought to an issue, before the horrible execution of the king, in the month of January, 1,793. That event being followed by the dismissal of the French minister at London, appeared so totally to dissolve all friendly communications between the two countries, as to induce the French government, by a decree of the assembly, February 3, 1,793, to declare war against the *king*

of Great Britain and the *stadtholder of Holland*; in which decree, there was evidently an attempt in the very wording of it to separate the *people* of the two countries from their respective sovereigns.

18. By this time, indeed, the encroaching disposition of the French revolutionists was manifested in their annexation of Savoy to France for ever, as soon as they had gained any advantages over it; and in their conduct in the Netherlands, by declaring the navigation of the Scheld free, contrary to all subsisting treaties with the Dutch. The same spirit was apparent in their refusal to exempt Alsace and Lorraine from the operation of the decrees for the abolition of feudal rights, and in their forcible seizure of Avignon and the comtat Venaissin, which had belonged to the Roman see for many centuries. It is true, the indiscreet manifestoes of the combined armies were sufficient to stimulate a people, already in a high degree of irritation, to acts of severe reprisal, in all cases of success; but it was very manifest that they had already violated their own principle of not acting on a system of aggrandizement, of which they made such boast at the beginning of the revolution. Their glaring abandonment of this principle, and the injury done to the Dutch by opening the Scheld, were the ostensible grounds of the war on the part of England. The declaration of France, in some degree, saved the minister from the responsibility of having actually commenced hostilities, however, in the opinion of opposition, he might be said to have provoked them; but it should still be observed, that there was a treaty subsisting between the two *countries*, affirming that the recal or dismission of public ministers should be considered tantamount to a declaration of war. If so, and the treaty was not invalidated by the change of things at Paris, as many asserted, the first declaration of war proceeded from the English government, who, on the suspension of the kingly authority, had recalled lord Gower from Paris, (many other courts, however, having done the same,) and on the death of the king, abruptly dismissed the French minister, M. Chauvelin, from England.

19. The exact objects of the hostile interference of England were never formally explained in parliament, though in the king's declaration they were regarded as too notorious; every thing conduced to render it apparent, that they had in view as much to oppose the propagation of anarchical principles, as the violence of territorial aggressions; that previously to the declaration of war on either part, the English government had shown a disposition not to interfere with the internal affairs of France, seems manifest from many circumstances.

20. It is not necessary to enter into the details of the war that took place after England joined the confederacy. The extraordinary progress and success of the French appertains to the history of that country, and may therefore be found elsewhere. Though the British troops fought with their accustomed bravery, and obtained in their first campaign some signal advantages, yet, owing in some measure to the want of harmony and cordiality between the confederates, but still more to the overwhelming force of France, now risen *en masse*, they ultimately met with great reverses, and were compelled to abandon the country they had undertaken to defend; but though unsuccessful by land, on the ocean England maintained her wonted superiority. Many of the French West India islands fell into her power in the summer of 1794, and a most decisive victory was gained by lord Howe, over the Brest fleet, on

the 1st of June. The island of Corsica also was subdued, and by the anti-gallican party, with the celebrated Paschal Paoli at their head, erected into a monarchy, the kingly power and prerogatives being freely conferred on his majesty George III. In the month of October, however, 1796, the French party recovered the ascendency, and the island being evacuated by the English, was re-annexed to France.

21. At the conclusion of the year 1794, though France had on the continent made surprising acquisitions, the spirits of the English were far from being shaken, and the utmost efforts were cheerfully made for continuing the contest on the ocean; and in all the colonies of the enemy, the advantages were clearly on the side of the British, during the years 1795, 1796, and 1797, when negotiations for peace took place, but without being brought to any favourable issue. At the close of 1797, his majesty, attended by the two houses of parliament, and the great officers of state, went to St. Paul's, to offer up a public and national thanksgiving for the naval victories obtained in all parts of the world; upon which occasion, many flags and colours taken from the French, Spaniards, and Dutch, were borne in solemn pomp to the cathedral, and deposited on the altar. Nothing could exceed the enthusiasm with which the British nation at this period appeared disposed to resist the threats of the enemy. The national militia having offered to transfer their services to Ireland, to suppress a rebellion which had broken out there, volunteer corps were formed in all parts of the kingdom to supply their place, and the people were readily induced to submit to a measure of finance, then first adopted, namely, of raising, by a triple assessment, (afterwards converted into an income and property tax,) a large proportion of the supplies wanted for carrying on the war *within the year*, so much, in short, of the loan, as should exceed the sum discharged by the operation of the sinking fund, so that no addition should be made to the permanent debt.

22. In the year 1798, the affairs of Ireland occasioned great difficulties. A regularly organized rebellion, the leaders of which were in constant communication with the enemy, threatened totally to dissolve the connexion subsisting between that country and Great Britain, and to invite the aid and co-operation of France, at the manifest hazard of rendering Ireland a dependency of the latter power, as had already been the case with Savoy, Belgium, Lombardy, and Venice. Ireland had but lately obtained concessions from England of no inconsiderable importance, a free trade, and the recognition of her political independence; but the catholics were dissatisfied with the national representation, to the defects in which they attributed the continuance of the penal statutes still directed against them. The French revolution led to the formation of the society of United Irishmen, in 1791, which had many reforms and changes in view, though short perhaps of an entire revolution. In 1795, from representations made to it of the oppressed state of Ireland, the French government regularly proffered its assistance to subvert the monarchy, and separate Ireland from Britain. Fortunately the plans of the traitors were timely discovered, and though it was not possible to prevent a recourse to arms, which afflicted many parts of the kingdom between April and October, yet the principal ringleaders were for the most part seized, executed, or compelled to fly, and under the able government of lord Cornwallis, tranquillity

was happily restored, with less difficulty and damage than had been expected.

23. The situation of affairs in Ireland during 1,798, led in the following year to the project of an *union* between the two countries, which Mr. Pitt submitted to the British parliament in the form of a message from the king, January 22, 1,799. The Irish legislature having been declared independent in 1,782, it was obvious that no such measure could be carried into execution without the free consent and acquiescence of the Irish parliament. Many circumstances seemed to conduce to render the proposed union desirable and beneficial to both nations, and at this particular moment, to reconcile most people to it. The catholics of Ireland had become dissatisfied with the parliament of that country, while the protestants, who were greatly outnumbered by the catholics, though they possessed four fifths of the property of the kingdom, had good reason to suppose their interests and ascendency would be best secured in one united and imperial parliament, than in a distinct legislature, in a country where the catholics had already obtained their elective franchise, and composed the bulk of the population. They might also reasonably apprehend the consequences of the overtures that had been made to France, and the alarming progress of revolutionary principles. In the case of the regency, the dangers incident to two distinct legislatures, had been rendered sufficiently apparent. On all these accounts, though the measure was at first very coldly entertained, and even rejected by the Irish house of commons; the minister was greatly encouraged to proceed, by the strong support he received in both countries, from persons of all ranks and parties. A series of resolutions was proposed to the house, to be laid before his majesty, recommendatory of the proposed union, which, after some opposition, was sent to a committee by a majority of 140 to 15. In the lords, the address passed without a division; a protest, however, being entered on the books, signed by three lords, Holland, Thanet, and King.

24. The last year of the eighteenth century was distinguished by the most important events in India, where the English, under the government of the earl of Mornington, totally defeated the most insidious, and powerful enemy, the forces in that remote country ever had to contend with; Tippoo Saib, the sultan of Mysore, son of the celebrated Hyder Ally Khan, who had usurped those dominions in 1,761. In the years 1,784, and 1,792, treaties of peace had been concluded between the sultan and the English, which, however, had had very little effect on the former, who had shown himself constantly attached to the French interests; and having been compelled by the last treaty to cede one half of his dominions to the conquerors, and to deliver two of his sons as hostages into the hands of lord Cornwallis, the governor-general, appears to have harboured the most inveterate hatred against the English from that moment, and to have meditated, by the aid of the French, and certain of the native powers, nothing less than their total extirpation. It would be impossible, perhaps, to find in history stronger instances of duplicity and treachery, than were practised by this celebrated potentate against the British interests, during the years 1,797 and 1,798, in the spring of the latter of which, lord Mornington arrived in India. With the French directory, with the French colonial government in Mauritius, with the king of Candahar, with the courts of Poonah and Hyderabad, with Buonaparte in Egypt, and even with the Otto-

man Porte, at the same time, the wily sultan managed to carry on secret negotiations, amidst the strongest professions of amity and attachment towards the English government. It has been conjectured, that had he obtained effectual aid from the French, in extirpating the English, he would as willingly have turned against his European abettors; the purport of all his negotiations with the *native* powers, being to stir them up to a general combination against the *infidels* and enemies of the *prophet*, without any distinction of the two nations.

25. By the extreme vigilance and cautious proceedings of the new governor-general, the intrigues of the sultan, notwithstanding his reiterated assurances of fidelity, were so amply discovered and exposed, as to vindicate, in the fullest manner, the declaration of war which took place in February, 1799, and which was speedily followed up by the most vigorous proceedings on the part of the army, terminating in the capture of Seringapatam, the capital of the Mysorean dominions, May 4, and the death of the sultan, whose body was found, after the action, covered with heaps of dead. His immense territories were divided amongst the allied powers, the remains of his family provided for in the Carnatic, and a boy of five years old, the surviving representative of the Hindoo dynasty, restored to the throne of his ancestors.

26. In the first year of the new century, the projected *union* and incorporation of the two legislatures and kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, was brought to a conclusion. Doubts were expressed in the Irish house of commons; and supported by great strength of argument, whether, as a delegated body, and without a fresh appeal to their constituents, they could formally consent to their own annihilation. Strong suspicions also were thrown out, that the plan had no other object in view than that of recovering to England the domination she had surrendered in 1,782, when the independency of the Irish legislature had been fully, and, as it was alleged, finally acknowledged and established; but these objections were overruled. It was no surrender, it was urged, of their legislative rights, to consent to be incorporated with the parliament of Great Britain, but a consolidation of them; and their consent would acquire a character from the regulations of 1,782, highly honourable to the nation; she could now treat as an independent state, and upon a footing of equality, instead of being in any respect compelled, as might otherwise have been the case, to an union of subjection. Early in the year 1,800, the assent of the two houses of parliament, in Ireland, was signified in addresses to his majesty, transmitted through the lord lieutenant, which being submitted to the British parliament, after much discussion and debate on the bill in general, as well as its several provisions, the union of the two kingdoms was finally arranged to take place from the first of January, 1,801.

27. The act of incorporation contained eight articles: the first three decreed the union of the two kingdoms, the maintenance of the protestant succession, and consolidation of the parliament. By the fourth, it was settled that four prelates should sit alternately in each session, and twenty-eight lay peers be elected for life, while two members for each county, (thirty-two in all) and thirty-six citizens and burgesses, should represent the commons. The fifth article united the churches of England and Ireland; the sixth and seventh provided for the commercial and financial arrangements of the two

countries, and the eighth for the maintenance of laws then in force, and continuance of the courts of judicature.

28. On the first of January, 1801, a royal declaration was issued, regulating the style and titles appertaining to the imperial crown of Great Britain and Ireland, with the arms, flags, and ensigns thereof. In these arrangements, the opportunity was judiciously taken of laying aside the title of king of France, and the French arms; the title in English was confined to Great Britain and Ireland; in Latin, "*Britanniarum Rex*," and the quartering of the "*fleurs de lis*," omitted in the blazonry.

29. A fresh revolution in the government of France, about this time, having thrown the executive power, in a great measure, into the hands of a supreme magistrate, the first consul, and overtures for peace having been made by Buonaparte in that capacity, much discussion upon the subject took place between the ministers of the two countries, but without effect. The Austrians having sustained a defeat in Italy, had solicited and obtained a suspension of hostilities, and entered upon some negotiations for peace, to which England was invited to become a party, upon consenting to a naval armistice, but her maritime power stood so high, that while Malta continued subject to France, and the French army unsubdued in Egypt, she could not reasonably be expected to forego such advantages, and to place herself upon a footing with her continental ally, whose situation was so different. Her determination to continue the war, was soon followed by the surrender of Malta, on the 5th of September, 1800, and in the course of the next year, the French troops were compelled finally to abandon Egypt; thus terminating an expedition, in a great degree mysterious, but which, no doubt, might have led to the disturbance of our power in India, had it not been for the interruption it met with on its way thither, and the overthrow of Tippoo Saib.

30. In the course of the year 1800, the enemies of England were greatly increased by the revival amongst the northern powers, of the armed neutrality, originally devised and adopted in 1780. As this dispute involved a very curious point of international law, it would have been well, if it could have been brought to such an issue as might have settled the question for ever; but, after much negotiation, and some very unpleasant conflicts at sea, (particularly with the Danes,) seizures and embargoes, the matter terminated rather in an uncertain compromise, than any positive adjustment. The right of search by belligerents, however inconvenient to neutrals, seemed to have been acknowledged for many centuries, as a principle of maritime law; upon the system of the armed neutrality, it was contended that ships under convoy should pass free, the flag of the neutral power being sufficient pledge and security that the cargoes were not contraband of war. The claim in this case being evidently directed against England, then, and at all times mistress of the sea, rendered it a point of extreme importance; one which she could not surrender without a contest, or armed negotiation; otherwise, and if it had not been decidedly in favour of her opponents, the countenance given to the new system by so many states of Europe, Russia, Denmark, Sweden, Prussia, Naples, France, Spain, Holland, Austria, Portugal, Venice, and Tuscany, (for by some steps or other they all seemed disposed to adopt the spirit of it,) might have been expected to amount to a formal recognition of its principle, as a proper law of nations; the dispute, however, upon this occasion,

was settled at Petersburg, by negotiation, after the accession of the emperor Alexander, and attended with concessions on the part of the Baltic powers, of singular importance, though less complete than they might have been, owing to the counter concessions of Britain. Thus, though it was decided that enemy's property embarked on board neutral ships, should be liable to confiscation, and that the right of searching merchant ships, even under convoy of a ship of war, should be recognized, yet, it was at the same time determined that arms and ammunition only should be considered as contraband, and that the right of searching merchant ships under convoy should appertain exclusively to vessels belonging to the royal navy. If not entirely decisive, however, the stipulations of this celebrated convention highly deserve to be looked up to as a proper standard of the rights of neutrality.

31. During the contest that arose with England, out of this confederacy of the nothern powers, the king of Prussia, one of the contracting parties, saw fit to take possession of the king of Great Britain's electoral states of Hanover, but on the change of affairs in Russia, was speedily induced to restore them.

32. By the treaty of peace concluded at Luneville, between the emperor of Germany and France, February 9, 1801, England was left without an ally, and a change of ministry having taken place about the same time, may be said to have laid the foundation for more serious negotiations for peace, on the part of England and France, than had hitherto taken place since the commencement of the revolution. Nothing, however, seemed to hasten it so much as the defeat of the French army in Egypt, and the settlement of the differences between England and the Baltic powers, which enabled her to negotiate with more advantage, and greatly lowered the spirit of the French government. Preliminaries were signed on the first of October, 1801, and a definitive treaty concluded at Amiens, between Great Britain and the French republic, Spain and Holland, on the 25th of March, 1802. By this treaty, England obtained Ceylon from the Dutch, and Trinidad from the Spaniards, relinquishing all her other conquests; Malta being given back to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, under the guarantee of the principal powers of Europe.

SECTION XIV.

FRANCE, FROM THE DEATH OF THE KING AND QUEEN, AND OVERTHROW OF THE GIRONDIST OR BRISSOTINE PARTY, 1,793, TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE DIRECTORY, 1,795.

1. The situation of France, towards the close of the year 1,793, was deplorable in the extreme. It lay at the mercy of a faction, not merely blood-thirsty, but which nothing but blood would satisfy. The jacobins, or Robespierrean party, determined to root out every thing that could, by the remotest implication, be denounced as adverse to their plans, procured a decree to be passed, exceeding every thing that can be conceived in atrocity. Such was the "Loi sur les *suspects*," passed in September, by which their agents

in all parts of the country, were empowered to arrest, imprison, and thereby doom to destruction, whomsoever suspicion in any manner attached to, not merely as principals, but as connected with principals, however unavoidably, naturally, or accidentally. One article alone will explain the rest. The following are the persons denounced in the 5th:—All of the ancient class of nobility; all husbands, wives, fathers, mothers, sons, or daughters, brothers, sisters, or agents of emigrants, who shall not have *constantly* manifested *an attachment* to the *revolution*. The queen, the twenty-two victims of the Girondist party, and general Custine, may be considered as among the earliest and most distinguished persons that fell under the power of this horrible faction. The duc d'Orleans, though not belonging to the Girondist party, was denounced by Robespierre himself, as connected with them, and publicly executed on the 6th of November; but his life and conduct, both public and private, had been such, that he fell totally unregretted. It would be vain to attempt to relate the many dreadful events which marked this bloody period. It is to be hoped history will never again have to record such complicated cruelties and miseries, such premeditated murders, such studied torments, mental and bodily.

2. On the 17th of November, of this memorable year, the catholic religion, (at the instance of an *archbishop of Paris*, Gobet!) was publicly abjured by the convention, and decrees past, amidst the most tumultuous acclamations, for substituting a religion of *reason* in its room. The churches were quickly despoiled of their ornaments, the altars destroyed, civic feasts instituted instead of religious festivals, and *Liberty*, *Equality*, &c. consecrated as objects of worship. These revolutionary and anti-catholic decrees were moreover ordered to be translated into *Italian*, on purpose that they might be transmitted in that most intelligible, and therefore most offensive shape, to the *pope*. The calendar underwent also a correction. A new republican form and era being adopted and established, to commence from the 22d of September, 1,792, the day on which the national convention began its sittings, and royalty was abolished. The year was divided into twelve parts, or forty days each, distinguished according to the prevalent seasons, *Vendemiaire*, September and October; *Brumaire*, October and November; *Frimaire*, November and December; *Nivose*, December and January; *Pluviose*, January and February; *Ventose*, February and March; *Germinal*, March and April; *Floreal*, April and May; *Prairial*, May and June; *Messidor*, June and July; *Thermidor*, July and August; *Fructidor*, August and September. The Sabbath was abolished, and five complimentary days added, all commemorative of the revolution. Each month was divided into three decades, and a respite from labour allowed on every tenth day.

3. It was not possible to suppose that those who ruled during this dark "*reign of terror*," could long be suffered to retain their power and station in the republic. Fortunately for the good of human society, their very crimes rendered them jealous and suspicious of each other, so that before many months had passed, after the execution of the queen and the Brissotines, the earth was rid of such monsters, proscribed and driven to the scaffold by their own friends and associates in wickedness; Robespierre, from whom the faction chiefly took its denomination, being at length accused, condemned, and executed, in the course of a few hours in the month of July, 1,794, to the satisfaction of the whole civilized world. Be-

fore this great day of retribution, however, one more victim of royalty was brought to the scaffold, whose sole offence must have been the heroic display she had made, in her constant attendance upon the king, her brother, and his most unhappy family, of every amiable virtue that could adorn a woman. The princess Elizabeth, who had continued in the temple, with the two children of the unhappy Lewis XVI., from the period of his execution, was brought before the revolutionary tribunal, accused of "accompanying the late king when he attempted his escape;" of having "attended upon and administered help to the wounded in the conflict with the guards;" and of "having encouraged her infant nephew, Lewis XVII., to entertain hopes of ascending the throne of his father;" and upon *these* charges sentenced to die, May 10, 1,794, and executed without pity or remorse.

4. It was during the year 1.793, that Napoleon Buonaparte, a native of Corsica, had first an opportunity of distinguishing himself in the French army, being employed in the direction of the artillery at the siege of Toulon, which had fallen for a short time into the hands of the English. Hitherto the war against the powers in opposition to France, had been carried on in a most desultory and extraordinary manner, with more success certainly on the part of the French than could have been expected, from the extraordinary condition and circumstances of their armies, and the strange state of responsibility in which their commanders were placed by their rulers at home. Some of their generals were compelled to desert, many were proscribed, and many, after displaying the utmost valour in the field, were actually brought to the scaffold. Nevertheless, the impulse given to the revolutionary army, by the circumstances of their country, aided by mistakes and jealousies on the part of their opponents, enabled it to combat effectually against much better organized troops, and to resist the attacks that were made upon it in all quarters; for in addition to the Austrians and Prussians, Sardinians, English and Spanish, in La Vendee and other departments, a civil war prevailed, where many acts of heroism, indeed, were displayed by a brave, but unsuccessful band of royalists, who ultimately paid dear for their revolt, by the most horrid and disgraceful punishments.

5. The French revolution had now attained that pitch of extravagance and disorder, which left no hopes of any check or termination, but that which actually ensued, namely, a military despotism. According to the remarks of one of the ablest members of the first national assembly, one who was sacrificed at the period we have been treating of, in a way the most treacherous and revolting to every feeling mind, the French revolution being undertaken, not for the sake of men, but for the sake of opinion, had no distinct leader, no Cromwell or Fairfax. All were leaders, all institutors, all equally interested in the course of affairs. Such a revolution, he observes, must be commenced by all, but he was sagacious enough to foresee that it would probably be terminated by *one*. All, however, for a certain time, being leaders and institutors, nothing could ensue from such a state of things, but continual struggles to be uppermost; continual denunciations and proscriptions of rival parties; and a strange succession of new constitutions, and new forms of government, as any opening seemed to occur for bringing things to a settlement.

6. The death of Robespierre, and of many of his accomplices,

clearly afforded such an opening, if not for settling, at least for ameliorating things; but for some time the convention and the nation seemed to be in too great a surprise and consternation to proceed with any method to so desirable an end. The former having had its origin in the days of anarchy and confusion, seemed little prepared to defend or support its own dignity, but the cry of humanity began again to be raised, and to be heard, and in no long course of time after the defeat of Robespierre, the jacobin club, from which had emanated all the previous acts and decrees, so disgraceful to France, was abolished and dissolved, by a decree of the convention. The reformation of the laws and government gave greater trouble. The pain of death had been decreed against any who should propose to set aside the constitution of 1,793, and with this sentence hanging over them, all the people had sworn to uphold and maintain it. Tired, however, of the absolute and uncontrollable power they had exercised, many members, even of the convention, sincerely wished for more limited authority. A committee was appointed to prepare a new code of laws, and, in the mean time, processes were carried against some of the most violent of the abettors of the late tumults and disorders, particularly the commissioners who had sanctioned the most dreadful proceedings at Lyons, Nantes, Orange, and Arras. The execrable law under which they had acted, "Loi des suspects," was repealed, and a just vengeance directed against those who had been most forward to carry it into execution.

7. At length a new constitution was framed, presented to the convention, and approved. Two legislative councils, one of five hundred members, and the other of two hundred and fifty, were to enact the laws; the former to propose, the latter to sanction or reject them. The executive government was committed to five directors, chosen by the legislature, but whose responsibility was ill-defined, and their connexion with the legislative bodies not sufficiently provided for, either as a balance, or controlling power. It was not without other faults and blemishes, but it may undoubtedly be regarded as making a much nearer approach to order and regularity, than the one which it was intended to supersede. It was formally accepted and proclaimed, September 23, 1,795.*

8. This may be considered as the third constitution established since the first meeting of the states-general, in 1,789; great objections were made to one article, which secured the return of a very large proportion of the members of the convention, to serve in the new legislature. Tumults were raised in the sections of Paris, and an attack made upon the convention, which, however, was at last rescued from the violence of the mob. Buonaparte, who was then at Paris, was appointed to act upon this occasion in defence of the assembly.

9. Externally, the affairs of France may be said to have been at this moment in a high and extraordinary degree of prosperity. The campaigns of 1,794 and 1,795, committed to the charge of very able generals, Pichegru, Souham, Jourdan, Kleber, Moreau, and Dugommier, had hitherto succeeded beyond their utmost expectations. The Belgian states, and the united provinces, had not only been

* The directors being Reubel, Letourneur, Lareveillere-Lepaux, Barras, and Sieyes; but the latter declining the honour, Carnot supplied his place.

wrested from the hands of their defenders, the Austrians, Prussians, and British, but associated with the French republic in a close confederacy. The stadtholdership was again abolished, and the stadtholder and his family obliged to take refuge in England. In the mean time, peace had been concluded with many of the belligerent powers, highly advantageous to France; with Prussia, Spain, the landgrave of Hesse, the grand duke of Tuscany, and others: while the navigation of the rivers Rhine, Meuse, and Scheldt, had been rendered free, in all their courses and branches, to the people of France. These proceedings, with regard to the Belgian states and Holland, were the commencement of a system pursued from that time on all the frontiers of the new republic. By a decree of the national assembly, the French generals were directed to proclaim every where the sovereignty of the *people*, to suppress all authorities and privileges, to repeal all taxes, and establish provisional governments on democratic principles. By this system of "*fraternization*," as it was called, the subdued countries being formed into republics, "*republiques satellites*," as they were significantly denominated by the French themselves, were associated with France as subordinate states. Of the states first revolutionized in this manner, the Batavian republic took the lead, surrendering to France, without hesitation, the chief of her fortresses, and thus extending, and at the same time protecting her frontier. The mistake she made in thus welcoming the French, was but too soon discovered. The French levied heavy contributions; the English took from them many of their foreign settlements, and particularly the cape of Good Hope, and the island of Ceylon.

10. In the month of June, 1795, Louis XVII., the unfortunate son of Louis XVI., died in the temple, under circumstances extremely suspicious, and very deplorable, having been some time in the custody of a low-born drunken wretch, who did every thing he could to insult and torment him, and undermine his health. He was in the eleventh year of his age at the time of his death. His sister, the princess royal, (the present duchess of Angoulême) was soon afterwards most happily released from her miserable prison, whence a father, mother, and aunt, had been successively led to execution, and where an only brother had died a victim to cruelty, and perhaps poison. Her royal highness was exchanged for certain members of the late convention, who had been delivered up to the allies, by the generals who had incurred the displeasure of their rulers at Paris, or had fallen into the hands of the enemy by other accidents.

SECTION XV.

FRANCE, FROM THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE DIRECTORY, 1,795, TO THE PEACE OF AMIENS.

1. The appointment of the five directors, was an act of policy on the part of the ruling members of the convention, who thought it better to hazard such a division of the executive power, than to give umbrage to the people, by the renewal of a first magistrate, though an elective one. As these new officers, however, owed their nomination to the influence of those members of the late convention who were chosen to form a part of the legislative body; a

close union was soon found to subsist between the directors and the majority of the council.

2. The council of ancients, consisting of two hundred and fifty members, at first appeared to form the bulwark of the new constitution; having no share in the framing of the laws, they were able to interpose with the greater dignity in pronouncing their judgment upon such as were referred to them, and often exercised the restored privilege of the *veto* beneficially for the public. The judicial murders of the reign of terror were terminated, and the government displayed, in many instances, a return to moderation and humanity, extremely desirable and praiseworthy, but in the southern department, a system of reaction and retaliation prevailed, which it was beyond their power to control. An organized body of assassins kept all those parts of the nation in a state of incessant alarm. The metropolis was in some degree restored to its wonted gayety, but every thing bespoke, as might reasonably be expected, a most demoralized state of society. The stage became intolerably licentious, and the public amusements were disgraced, by a freedom of manners, and indelicacy of dress on the part of the females, beyond measure offensive. Those whose nearest connexions had been doomed to the scaffold, could find no better mode of commemorating their loss, than by *festive* meetings, called "*Bals a la Victime*," to which no one could be admitted but such as had lost a father, a mother, a husband, a wife, a brother, or a sister, by the guillotine!

3. Hitherto the prowess of the French armies had been manifested much more in the north, and on the Rhine, than in the southern parts of the continent; towards Italy, the Austrians and Piedmontese seemed to hold the French in check. Dugommier had indeed invaded Spain with effect; and by his attacks contributed to bring about a peace with that country; but now a new scene was about to open, leading to such a succession of victories and revolutions as it would be impossible fully to describe in such a work as the present.

4. Early in the year 1,796, general Buonaparte obtained (being then twenty-six years of age,) the chief command of the army of Italy, as it was called. His eagerness to commence operations drew upon him some remonstrances. It was suggested to him that many things were wanting in his army necessary to the campaign. "I have enough," said he, "if I conquer, and too many if I should be beaten." The Austrian army in those parts was commanded by general Beaulieu, an officer peculiarly active and enterprising. General Buonaparte took the command of the French army on the 30th of March, and between the 12th and 15th of April, beat the Austrian troops in three distinct engagements, at Montenotte, Millesimo (or Montelezino.) and Dego. In the space of four days, it has been computed, that the Austrian army was diminished to the amount of 15,000 men, being separated at the same time from their Piedmontese allies. After the battle of Dego, Buonaparte advanced rapidly into Piedmont, nor did he stop till he had arrived at the very gates of Turin. There he agreed to an armistice solicited by the king, who was ignominiously compelled to submit to his occupying with French troops all the principal fortresses of his country. Happy to be allowed to retain the capital, he was also obliged to cede Savoy, Nice, Tende, and Beuil. From Turin, Buonaparte pursued his course into Lombardy, and by the celebrated

battle of Lodi, on the 10th of May, obtained complete possession of the Milanese.

5. Unwilling to enter immediately into the narrow parts of Italy in this stage of his proceedings, he satisfied himself with threatening the pope and the king of Naples, till he brought them to terms of peace: the former surrendering to the French republic, Bologna, Ferrara, and the coasts of the Adriatic, from the mouths of the Po, to Ancona; and the latter consenting to contribute largely to the maintenance of the French army, and to close his ports against the enemies of France. The dukes of Parma and Modena, made submission in time to save their countries. The grand duke of Tuscany had previously acknowledged the French republic, but was bidden very peremptorily to exclude the English from the port of Leghorn. The submission of all these princes and states to the overwhelming force of the army under the command of Buonaparte, was but part of the victory he obtained over them. In every step he took, he was careful, by new laws, treaties, and political arrangements, to "*revolutionize*" the countries over which he obtained an ascendency by arms, and to incorporate them with the French republic. Savoy, Nice, and the Milanese, were thus brought under his dominion, and ultimately erected into distinct, though subordinate republics.

6. It was at the very commencement of the military career of this extraordinary man, that he adopted a system of plunder, which, for a long time, engaged the attention of the whole civilized world. In all the treaties concluded with the Italian princes, he stipulated that French artists should be admitted into their public galleries, museums, and palaces, to select as many as they might choose, of the choicest performances of the celebrated painters and sculptors of all ages, and cause them to be conveyed to Paris. French sentiment has dwelt upon the circumstance of the immortal Raphael, Titian, and Domenichino, having thus had it in their power, and in such critical moments, to pay the ransom of their native countries, overlooking the sad violation of sentiment occasioned by the removal of these precious pledges of their stupendous talents from the hands which had so long preserved them, and from places of which they had been so justly regarded as the choicest and most valuable ornaments.

7. The siege of Mantua was attended with many severe conflicts. On the reduction of that important place, Buonaparte is stated to have thus addressed his soldiers: "The capture of Mantua terminates a campaign which has justly entitled you to the everlasting gratitude of your country. You have triumphed over the enemy in three pitched battles, and seventy inferior engagements: you have taken a hundred thousand prisoners, fifty field-pieces, two thousand battering cannons. The country you have subdued has nourished, maintained, and paid the army during the whole campaign, and you have remitted thirty millions to the minister of finance, in aid of the public treasury. You have enriched the museum at Paris, with more than three hundred of the choicest and most valuable works of art, both of ancient and modern Italy, and which it had taken thirty ages to produce."

8. Though we know from subsequent accounts of French victories, that they are not always to be depended upon, yet there can be no doubt, that the above address does pretty fairly describe the extraordinary rapidity and extent of Buonaparte's first operations

in the field. The years 1,796 and 1,797, were indeed marked by such surprising instances of this nature, that they deserve a place in history, though the prudence and good generalship of such precipitate steps has been reasonably questioned. Mantua capitulated on the 2d of February, 1,797, and Buonaparte pursued his course in the direction of the Austrian capital, leaving Italy behind him, with a view of penetrating to Vienna. Though obliged to fight his way, he succeeded, March 2, 1,797, in taking possession of Gradisca, which laid open to him the provinces of Goritz, Carniola, and Carinthia.

9. The Austrian grand army was commanded by the emperor's brother, the archduke Charles, an able general, a great favourite with the soldiers, and who had combated the French on the Rhine with signal success. He was not, however, strong enough to await the approach of the French, who soon reached Leoben, only thirty miles from Vienna, where great consternation was excited, and the imperial family compelled to retire. As both armies, however, were brought into a very critical position, negotiations were entered into at this place, an armistice concluded on the 8th of April, and preliminaries of peace signed on the 15th of the same month, 1,797.

10. Before we notice the celebrated treaty of Campo-Formio, by which the peace was settled and confirmed, it may be fit to consider the state of those countries which Buonaparte had left behind on his march upon Vienna. He had made peace on his own terms (most advantageous ones for France) with Parma, Modena, Rome, and Naples. He had overrun Savoy, obtained possession of the Milanese, and reduced Mantua. He had erected Genoa into the Ligurian republic, and the Milanese he converted into the Cisalpine republic, after having first given it the name of Transpadane, in reference to the river Po, and in contradistinction to the Cispadane republic, consisting of Modena, Bologna, Reggio, and Ferrara, confederated in 1,796. He had passed Venice on his way to Trieste, of which he took possession on the 3d of April, 1,797. The Venetians had afforded an asylum to Lewis XVIII., and wavered greatly in taking part either with the Austrians or the French, not being able to calculate upon the issue of the contest. They had also fallen into domestic broils and dissensions, which gave the French commander the opportunity he always sought, of introducing a French army to allay their differences. The consequences were, that they immediately seized upon the fleet, the Ionian islands, and, in fact, all the Venetian states, which enabled Buonaparte greatly to improve the peace he was making with the Austrians. Albania and the Ionian islands he kept to himself; to the Cisalpine republic he assigned the western dependencies of Venice, reserving for Austria, the capital Istria, Dalmatia, and the island of the Adriatic, in exchange for the Netherlands and the duchy of Luxemburg. He had professed to enter upon the Venetian states merely to rescue them from the hands of Austria, but by this extraordinary manœuvre, he not only delivered them over to the very power from whom he undertook to save them, but he obtained from Austria the very object for the sake of which her English allies had refused to make peace in 1797. Such appears to have been the chief foundation of the celebrated treaty of Campo-Formio, concluded between the emperor and the French republic, October, 17, 1,797.

11. Previously to the conclusion of the treaty of Campo-Formio,

the allies had lost three of their confederates, the dukes of Wirtemburg and Bavaria, and the Margrave of Baden, all of whom had found it necessary to purchase peace of the directory by heavy contributions. Such great advantages in its external relations were, however, far from contributing to the internal tranquillity of the republic. The first five directors, as might naturally have been expected, were by no means accordant in their views, or of equal talents and abilities; and provision seemed to have been made for fresh revolutions, by the continual recurrence of new elections, both in the legislative assemblies and directory. One of the five directors was annually to go out, and one third of each of the legislative bodies to be renewed. The first event of this kind, as might be expected, revived all the jealousies of rival parties, and produced an explosion almost as violent as any that had yet occurred; the explosion of the 18th of Fructidor, as marked in the short-lived republican calendar. Le Tourneur quitted the directory by lot, and was succeeded by Barthelemi, who soon appeared inclined to join Carnot against Reubel, Barras, and Larevilliere-Lepaux. The three latter were for assuming a despotic power; their opponents were divided, some inclined to the restoration of royalty, others to the emancipation of the councils from the sway of the directors, Reubel and his two associates; but as they formed a minority, and their enemies were prompt in their measures of revenge, and had moreover the command of the military, it was not long before the latter obtained the victory they sought. On the 4th of September, 1,797, the legislative assemblies were surrounded with troops, and at the instance of the three ruling directors, two of their colleagues, (Carnot and Barthelemi) several members of the two councils, many public ministers, and many men of letters, declared guilty of anti-republican measures and principles, arrested and imprisoned; and, on the 5th, sentenced to deportation to the unhealthy and remote settlement of Guiana, in South America. The authors, editors, directors, and proprietors, of no less than forty-two public journals were included in the sentence. Some of the proscribed members found means to escape; but those who were conveyed to Guiana, suffered dreadfully from the voyage; many died from the unwholesomeness of the place, some found means to return to Europe, particularly general Pichegru and the ex-director, Barthelemi who were conveyed to England from the Dutch settlement of Surinam.

12. Buonaparte returned to Paris not long after these disturbances, and was received with peculiar honours. The people began to look up to him for deliverance from the tyranny of three directors; and the latter were as eager to remove him from the metropolis. In the midst of the honours paid to him, on account of his victories in Italy and Germany, Barras, with great emphasis, nominated him as the hero destined to place the tri-coloured flag on the tower of London. Troops were actually assembled on the coasts of Flanders and Normandy for the purpose; but Buonaparte himself, seeing the impracticablility of such an attempt, meditated a more distant expedition.

13. In the course of the year 1,798, the system, began so successfully in Flanders and Holland, of revolutionizing the countries into which the French armies should penetrate, was carried to a great extent. Watchful to seize upon every opportunity afforded them by internal dissensions, the French this year obtained possession of Rome, Switzerland, the Pays de Vaud, the Grisons, and

Geneva, under circumstances peculiarly distressing to the existing governments, and commonly attended with heavy exactions, and the plunder of their churches, palaces, and museums. The pope was driven from Rome, partly by his own subjects, and partly through an overweening confidence in his own power and influence. The Roman republic was proclaimed February 15, 1,798; and the finances being found in a bad state, the Vatican and other public buildings stripped of their contents. The Pays de Vaud, whither the French had been invited, to protect them against the aristocratic despotism of the Bernese, was formed into the *Leman*, and Switzerland, after many cruel sacrifices, into the *Helvetic* republic, or rather into three republics, for that was ultimately the arrangement adopted; provisional governments being in all places appointed, conformably, in a great degree, to the principles of the French constitution. No remonstrances on the part of the free cantons could save them from the directorial decrees. An address to this effect, peculiarly pathetic and eloquent, from the cantons of Schwitz, Uri, Appenzel, Glaris, Zug, and Underwalden, had no effect whatever in preserving them from a change of constitution, *forced* upon them by *democratic* France. The degenerate *Romans* had appeared to pride themselves upon emulating their heroic ancestors, in re-establishing the republic, under the *auspices* of *Gallic invaders*. But the brave Swiss resisted to the utmost the rude disturbers of their ancient freedom. The modern republicans of Rome chanted a Te Deum, to hallow their deliverance. The Swiss sung their antiquated songs of patriotism and freedom, till the most dire necessity compelled them to surrender their established constitution to the dictates of a French directory.

14. On the 5th of May, Buonaparte left Paris for Toulon, to take the command of an expedition, the real object of which has scarcely been ascertained to this day, though it appears most probable, that he designed to join Tippoo Saib in India, and to subvert the British empire there. He was accompanied by many artists, naturalists, and antiquarians, and a large proportion of the army which had served under him in Italy. Malta lying in his way to Egypt, he failed not to take possession of it, partly by force, and partly by intrigue, subjecting that island and its dependencies, Goza and Cumino, to the French republic, June 12, 1,798. Its conquest had for some time previously been meditated, but it had lately been put under the protection of the emperor of Russia, Paul I.: it was treated by the French as ill as other places, notwithstanding the utmost assurances to the contrary. The knights were driven from the island, many of the people compelled to join the French army, and new laws imposed under the authority of the directory. In the month of July, this year, 1798, a triumphant entry into Paris, of all the works of art collected in the several places subdued by the French arms, took place amid the acclamations of the people. The French fleet had narrowly escaped at Malta the pursuit of an English one, under the command of Nelson; and after the subduction of the island, it was able to proceed, still undiscovered, to Egypt, where the English had already been to look for them in vain. On the 2d of July, Buonaparte took possession of Alexandria, mooring his fleet in the bay of Aboukir. In less than three weeks from his landing, and after a severe action with the Mamelukes, called the battle of the pyramids, Cairo, and the whole of the Delta fell into his power; but his triumph was lessened by the loss of his fleet, on

the 1st of August, which, being attacked in the bay by Nelson, was almost totally destroyed or taken, the French admiral Brueys being killed and his ship burnt; four ships only, two of them frigates, were all that escaped. When Buonaparte left Toulon, his fleet consisted of 400 sail, including thirteen ships of the line, and it was rather increased than otherwise by his enterprise at Malta.

15. The victory of Nelson gave a new turn to the war against the French. On his quitting Egypt, he carried his fleet to Naples, where the utmost joy was manifested by the court at the blow which had been given to the French preponderance. The queen invoked the Austrians to renew the war against France; and the expedition to Egypt and attack upon Malta having excited the czar, and even the grand seignior, to resist aggressions so unprovoked and alarming, Francis II. was not insensible to the call made upon him. England was not backward to encourage and aid such movements, in every part of Europe. The king of Sardinia, and the grand duke of Tuscany showed themselves willing to join the new confederacy; but the king of Prussia was not to be prevailed on to abandon his neutrality.

16. The Neapolitan court, which had been the foremost to excite this new war, were the first sufferers from it. Having invaded the territories of the church, and even obtained possession of Rome, they were suddenly driven back by the French, the capital taken, and the royal family compelled to retire to Palermo, in Sicily. Naples was not taken possession of without a formidable insurrection of that extraordinary portion of its population, the *Lazzaroni*, with whom the king, whose amusements were often unbecoming his high rank, happened to be popular. This resistance provoked reprisals exceedingly distressing to the inhabitants, and almost ruinous to the city; the tumult, however, was at length appeased, and the kingdom of Naples converted into the *Parthenopean*, or *Neapolitan republic*.

17. The king of Sardinia, and the grand duke of Tuscany were also made to pay dear for the renewal of hostilities, both being deprived of their dominions, as allies of the Neapolitans, and compelled to abandon their capitals. The aged pope, who had indeed, by many unwise provocations, irritated the French, a refugee in the Tuscan territories, unwilling to accompany the deposed princes in their retreat from Florence, and too confidently relying on the reverence that would be paid to his years and station, was actually arrested in his monastic retirement, and conveyed to Valence, in Dauphiny, a prisoner, where he died broken hearted, August 29, 1,799. On the establishment of the consular government, his body was honourably interred, and a monument erected over him.

18. But the directory, in the midst of these arbitrary seizures of states and kingdoms, acted with too little foresight, as to the effects of the formidable confederacy of Russia and Austria. The French armies were widely separated, and many of the most successful generals, through a pernicious jealousy, disgraced and removed from their command. This disheartened the soldiers; and reverses were preparing for them, both in Germany and Italy. The Russian army, under Souvaroff, entered the latter country early in the spring of the year 1,799, and on the 18th of April was at Verona. The character and manners of this northern general, made a great impression both upon the allied armies, and upon the inhabitants of the countries he invaded. The French, under the celebrated Moreau,

were obliged to fall back, leaving the Milanese exposed to the combined forces. After various actions, Milan was invested; and, after a nineteen days' siege, taken May 24. Turin, Alessandria, Mantua, and Tortona, were reduced in the months of June and July; and in most of these places, as well as in other parts of Italy, Tuscany, Naples, and Rome, great indignation was manifested against the French, of whose tyranny they had all tasted, and of whose friendship they were already become weary. In a short time the French retained, of all their conquests in those parts, only Genoa and Savoy.

19. While these things were going on, the councils at Paris began to distrust the government of the directors, and to ask why Buonaparte was at such a distance. Inquiries of this kind were often put to his brother Lucien, who had a seat in the council of five hundred. A party was formed against the most obnoxious of the directors, and three found it necessary to retire. Another revolution in the government was evidently preparing. Buonaparte's absence and object seemed equally mysterious. It was supposed that he meant to open the old channel of trade between the East Indies and the Mediterranean. After the destruction of his fleet, as though banished from France, he appeared eager to establish a colony in Egypt, which, perhaps, was originally in his view, in carrying thither all that the arts and sciences of Europe could contribute of utility or beauty. All his works were superintended by persons of known celebrity for talent and knowledge of every description; but he was turned from this object by the jealousy of the Turks, who, after the battle of Aboukir, (or of the Nile, as it is generally called in England,) were ready enough to join the English in attacking the French, confined, as it were, within their territories. Buonaparte, to be beforehand with them, marched into Syria, where the pacha of Acre, a man of most ferocious character, commanded. He succeeded in taking many fortresses, and for three months maintained a war in the very heart of the country, but his artillery having been intercepted by the English, who had also been admitted into Acre, his attempts upon the latter place were frustrated, and, being threatened on all sides, he resolved to return to Egypt; there he received letters to inform him of the reverses in Italy, and the disorders at Paris, and to press his return; but the Turks had landed at Aboukir, and taken possession of the fort, and it was judged necessary for his fame, that he should not quit Egypt without beating them. He hastened to attack them, and succeeded; but not without many severe conflicts, and an eight days' siege of the fortress of Aboukir. Soon after this success, he embarked clandestinely for France, leaving the army under the command of general Kleber, (who complained greatly of being so duped and abandoned,) and in a very extraordinary manner escaped all the English ships cruising in the Mediterranean.

20. Buonaparte arrived just in time to take advantage of the distracted state of the government. The legislature was a prey to faction; the directors divided in opinion; the jacobins and anarchists extremely troublesome, and not unlikely to recover their sway; while many departments were in a state of insurrection and civil war. Sieyes, the most wise and politic of all that had yet been in the directory, foresaw the necessity of a change, and wanted only some military genius to support his measures, and to whom he could confide his designs. Three other important characters appeared to rest their hopes on the interference of Buonaparte;

Fouche, minister of police; Cambaceres, minister of justice; and the ex-minister for foreign affairs, Talleyrand Perigord.

21. Within a month after the arrival of Buonaparte, a proposal was made in the council of ancients, to remove the legislative bodies to St. Cloud, and to confer on Buonaparte the command of the troops at Paris. At the moment the decree was passed, Buonaparte, accompanied by many of the generals who had distinguished themselves under him, appeared at the bar, denouncing threats against all who should traverse the decree just passed. The council of five hundred, taken by surprise, made some show of resistance; and Buonaparte appearing amongst them, gave such offence, that he was in danger of assassination, amidst the cries of "Down with the tyrant!" "No dictator!" His brother Lucien, at that time president, was loudly called upon to pronounce a decree of outlawry against him, which he evaded by throwing aside his official dress, and renouncing his seat in the assembly; after which, Buonaparte, in some alarm, having joined his troops, the meeting was dissolved, and violently dispersed by the soldiery. It was allowed however to assemble again under the former presidency, the jacobinical members being excluded, when a new order of things, approved by the council of elders, was brought forward, decreed, and proclaimed. The directory was abolished, and *three* new chief magistrates appointed under the name of consuls, while committees were formed to prepare a new constitution. Eighty persons were to compose a senate, one hundred a tribunate, and three hundred a legislative body.

22. The time seemed now to be arrived when the excesses of the revolutionary movement had prepared men's minds for a transition from a state of anarchy to one of despotism. Popular liberty had fallen into disrepute, from the violences of the jacobins; and a strong executive government seemed indispensably necessary to restore things to any degree of order and consistency. Though the *five* directors appeared to be exchanged for *three* consuls, there was, in the last instance, no correspondent division of power and authority. To the first consul were assigned functions and prerogatives exceedingly distinct from those of his colleagues. "Unity of thought and action was declared to be a fundamental quality in the executive power." So far they were evidently going back to the first and best principles of monarchy. Hitherto, however, an elective and limited consulate was all that was contemplated. General Buonaparte was appointed first consul, Cambaceres the second, and Le Brun the third, the first two for ten, the last for only five years; Buonaparte, to say the least, having all the power of a king, though not the name, assigned to him,—a power approaching too near to absolute and uncontrollable despotism.

23. In the first discharge of his new functions, however, he was careful to display a spirit of moderation, forbearance, and conciliation, in many popular acts at home, and overtures of peace to England. The latter were without effect, and a large subsidy being granted by the British parliament, to enable the emperor to continue the war, no time was lost by the French in endeavouring to recover their footing in Italy. In the month of May, 1800, the first consul left Paris, to take the command of the army in those parts; and after a most surprising passage through the mountainous parts of Switzerland, and the capture of the town of Costa, with the celebrated fort of Bard, succeeded so far as to be able to enter Milan once more in triumph, the Austrians retiring before him, little expecting that he

could find a way into Lombardy by the road he had chosen. The Russian army had been withdrawn in disgust, after the proceedings in Switzerland, which had greatly offended the czar. Previously to the entrance of the first consul into Milan, the French, under Massena, had been compelled to evacuate Genoa: but the Austrians were doomed to suffer a reverse; and though in the famous battle of Marengo, which took place on the 14th of June, they fought with the most desperate courage, and sustained an action of fourteen hours with great heroism, and the fairest prospects of success, the enemy received reinforcements at so critical a moment as to enable them to obtain a complete victory, which was soon followed by a suspension of hostilities, solicited by the Austrian general.

24. Negotiations for peace were entered into at Paris, and the preliminaries were signed; but, through the remonstrances of the English government, (as it is supposed,) the emperor refused his ratification, and the war was continued, both in Germany and Italy, till the 25th of December, 1,800, when another suspension of hostilities being agreed to, at Steyen, a town in Upper Austria, soon led to the treaty of *Luneville*, between the French republic and the *empire*, signed February 9, 1801; by which the Rhine was made the boundary of the French republic, leaving the several princes dispossessed, in part or in whole, of their territories on the left side of the river, to be indemnified in the bosom of the empire; the Adige, in the same manner, being fixed to be the boundary between the Austrian territories in Italy and the Cisalpine republic. The Grand duke of Tuscany renounced his dukedom in favour of the infant duke of Parma, created king of Etruria; and the independence of the Batavian, Helvetic, and Cisalpine republics, was recognised and guaranteed by both parties.

25. The English government had refused to enter into a naval armistice, though in danger of being deserted by the emperors of Germany and Russia, and had declined every offer of peace upon such terms, while Malta and Egypt continued in the hands of France. But after the re-capture of the former, and the defeat of the French under Menou, at Alexandria, in September, 1,801, both parties seemed more disposed than before to enter into negotiation, with serious views of bringing things to an accommodation. On March 27th, 1,802, a definitive treaty was signed at Amiens, more favourable to France than to England, though nothing could exceed the joy expressed in the latter country, on the termination of hostilities with the French republic. It was soon found to be no better than a truce of very short duration.

26. The power of the French republic at this moment was enormously great. In addition to the former possessions of France, it had gained the Netherlands, and a considerable portion of Germany; Geneva, Piedmont, and Savoy had been incorporated with it; Holland and Switzerland were rendered effectually dependent upon it. The Cisalpine republic, including the Milanese, the duchies of Modena, Mantua, and Parma, and part of the Venetian and Roman territories, was placed under the presidency of the first consul, for a term of ten years. Genoa, or the Ligurian republic, had been recovered by the treaty of Luneville; Spain was entirely at the command of France, as well as Tuscany, under its new possessor, the vassal king of Etruria. It had recovered also its West Indian settlements, and acquired a considerable footing in South America.

SECTION XVI.

FRANCE, FROM THE PEACE OF AMIENS TO THE TREATY OF TILSIT, 1,807.

1. It has already been observed, that the first steps of the consulate were of a conciliatory nature. Endeavours were made to pacify the rebellious departments; the law of hostage, which had been in its operation extremely vexatious, was repealed; and the list of emigrants closed. On the first change of the government, measures were taken to repress the violence of the jacobins, and awe the factious; but the sentences passed on the most obnoxious were afterwards mitigated.

2. Soon after the conclusion of the peace of Amiens, the first consul gave great satisfaction to the bulk of the nation, by restoring the catholic religion. On Easter-day, 1,802, the peace was ratified in the metropolitan church, with all the sanctions of the ancient religious forms, and a large attendance of new prelates. The basis of the convention with the pope had been settled and arranged in the preceding year, upon the following principles:—That a new division of the French dioceses should be made, suited to the republican division of the country; and that the first consul should nominate the new archbishops and bishops, leaving it to the pope, as a matter of course, to confer canonical institutions. The bishops to appoint the parish priests, subject to the approbation of government. The pope to procure the ancient bishops to resign, and to engage not to disturb the alienated property of the church. No bull, rescript, &c., from the court of Rome, no decrees of synods, or general councils, to be received, or promulgated, without the consent of government. No national or diocesan meeting to take place without the same authority; or any nuncio, legate, or vicar, to be allowed to exercise his functions.

3. Such were some of the principal articles of the *concordatum* of 1,801. The pope seemed to be glad to make any concessions that might recover France from the depths of infidelity; while the articles themselves plainly show that the first consul, in restoring catholicism, had no intention to subject the nation, as heretofore, to the dominion of the Roman see, even in spiritual matters. A still stronger proof, however, of which, appears in the liberty afforded, at the same time, to the Lutherans and Calvinists, who were placed nearly upon the same footing with the catholics; and were even allowed to have three seminaries of education; two in the eastern parts of France, for the Lutherans, and one at Geneva, for the Calvinists. Provision was also made in the new concordatum for the supposed case of a protestant being chosen chief magistrate of the republic.

4. On the second of August, 1,802, by an extraordinary expression of the public will, the consulate, the term of which, in the case of Buonaparte and Cambaceres, had been limited to ten years, was conferred on the former for life. The original proposal had been only to extend the term; but the people in the different *communes* being called upon to give their opinion, voted, almost unanimously, for its being continued to the first consul for life, which was readily sanctioned by the senate.

5. This appointment was soon followed by a new form of constitution, calculated to throw greater power into the hands of the first magistrate, who was permitted, not only to nominate his colleagues, but to make war, form alliances, conclude peace, pardon criminals, and virtually to choose the members of the legislative body, by means of the senate, which was almost entirely under his influence. He was careful, at the same time, to put the governments of the Cisalpine and Ligurian republics, and other newly acquired states, upon a similar footing, reserving to himself, in all cases, the supreme power as first magistrate. All these steps were so artfully taken, as to appear to be the regular result of popular choice and deliberation. Liberty, equality of civil rights, and national representation, were professed to be the objects in view; but care was taken to render each dependent on the domineering influence and directions of the first consul. It was at this period that the Cisalpine was converted into the Italian republic.

6. Switzerland was not so easily to be brought under the French yoke, though its struggles for liberty and independence were finally unavailing. Many of the cantons displayed an almost invincible attachment to their ancient constitution, and resisted, in every way they could, the menaced invasion of their rights and privileges; but the more they were divided amongst themselves, which unhappily proved to be the case to a high degree, the greater opportunity was afforded to the despotic ruler of France to interpose his offices to restore peace, nominally as a mediator, but really and effectually to the subjugation of the country, which, when reduced, was in mockery declared to be free and independent. Remonstrances on the part of the English court, are supposed to have had some effect in mitigating the rigour of his exactions, and rendering the new constitution prepared for them, more congenial to their feelings than might otherwise have been the case.

7. In 1,802, by the death of the duke of Parma, and in virtue of a previous convention with Spain, the first consul, in the name of the French republic, took possession of the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, and incorporated them soon after with France. The only son of the deceased duke of Parma, by a Spanish princess, having assigned to him by the treaty of Luneville, the Tuscan states, under the title of the kingdom of Etruria.

8. Though, by the above treaty, the indemnification of those princes, whose rights and property had suffered from the progress of the French, seemed to be left chiefly to the decision of the diet of the empire, Buonaparte found means to interfere to his own advantage, favouring those most from whom he had the most to fear, or who were most likely to be subservient to his views. For the duke of Wirtemburgh, the landgrave of Hesse Cassel, and the margrave of Baden, he secured the electoral dignity; while the indemnifications were provided for by the secularization of many ecclesiastical states on the right side of the Rhine.

9. It was soon found that, by the peace of Amiens, little cordiality was produced between the two nations. The first consul professed to be bound by that treaty only to particular specified points, and appeared through his agents, secret or avowed, to be preparing for a renewal of hostilities. He had some reason, it must be confessed, to be offended with the liberties taken with him in some of the public journals of England at this time; and though it can scarcely be supposed that peace could be his object, yet he appears to have

been provoked and irritated by the distrust of the British government and nation. So early as the month of May, 1,803, the two countries may be said to have been again in a state of war with each other.

10. On this quick renewal of hostilities, the first consul had recourse to a most extraordinary measure, in detaining all the English who happened to have come over to France during the peace, for business or pleasure, as a sort of hostages for the future conduct of their country. He also projected a powerful invasion of England, which had only the effect of rousing the latter country to such vigorous and patriotic exertions as entirely to frustrate all his schemes and intentions. A levy *en masse* was proposed, subject to the regulations of parliament. As another act of vengeance against England, an army was sent to occupy Hanover, though the king, in his electoral capacity, had determined to remain neuter.

11. The first consul had now, for some time, exercised not only kingly, but almost despotic power, and artfully placed himself in such a situation of control and influence, with regard to all the public bodies, assemblies, and councils of the nation, that it is not to be wondered that he should have aspired to, and obtained, the highest dignities it is in the power of a nation to bestow; though, had he acted with less prudence and policy, nothing certainly could have occurred more surprising than the undisturbed elevation of a Corsican adventurer to one of the most splendid thrones of Europe. By an organic senatus consultum of the 18th of May 1,804, Buonaparte was declared EMPEROR of the FRENCH. The title to be hereditary, as to his immediate descendants, and, in case of failure of male issue, granting him a further power to adopt the children, or grand-children, of his brothers. All laws were to originate with the sovereign, or to be proposed in his name; and due care was taken, by rendering the legislative body and tribunate dependent on the senate, in the appointment of which the emperor was to have almost the whole power, to prevent the passing of any laws contrary to his will. The imperial title thus conferred on him, was acknowledged by most of the states of Europe, though not by England.

12. This assumption of the imperial title, by Napoleon Buonaparte, and the subsequent confederation of the Rhine, led the emperor of Germany, Francis II., to abdicate the Germanic empire, and to change his title to that of emperor of Austria, thereby securing the same hereditary honour to the house of Hapsburg, and at the same time, not entirely resigning his political relationship to the states and empire of Germany.

13. On the 2d of December, 1,804, Napoleon was crowned, in the church of Notre Dame, with extraordinary pomp and splendour, having previously invited, or rather compelled the humbled pontiff of Rome to be present at the ceremony, and to anoint him. His empress, Josephine Beauharnois, to whom he had been some time married, was crowned at the same time.

14. One of the first acts of the new emperor was to change the name of the *Code civil des Francais*, introduced under the consular government, for that of the *Code Napoleon*. His two brothers, Joseph and Lewis, and his two colleagues, Le Brun and Cambaceres, were declared *grand elector*, *constable*, *arch-chancellor*, and *arch-treasurer*, of the empire; and the dignity of mareschal was conferred on the most distinguished of his generals. But, in order to give more stability to his throne, or intimidate his enemies, under pretence of a

royalist conspiracy, he had many eminent persons brought to trial; among others, the two celebrated generals, Pichegru and Moreau. The former was, soon after, found dead in his prison, under circumstances implying little less than a most deliberate murder; the latter, an equal object of dread and alarm, and whose death was probably contemplated, was permitted, however, to retire to North America. It is scarcely credible, though it certainly appears upon record, that the French minister at Berlin was directed to move the king of Prussia to deliver up the unfortunate Lewis XVIII., then at Warsaw, and to send him to France, to answer for the concern he was stated to have had in this conspiracy.

15. Having obtained the imperial dignity in France, Napoleon appeared dissatisfied to be only president of a republic with regard to his Cisalpine conquests. Means were found to induce the constituted authorities of the new Italian republic to offer to him the crown of Italy, an offer he was quite prepared to accept, as though the whole of that devoted country had been already subdued. On the 26th of May, 1,805, he repaired to Milan, and taking the famous iron crown from the altar of the cathedral, placed it on his own head, denouncing vengeance against all who should dispute his right to it. Having done this, he appointed the son of the empress Josephine, Beauharnois, to be his viceroy, and agreed, that upon his death the two crowns should be separated. Soon after he seized upon Genoa, dispossessed the doge and senators of their power, and decreed, that henceforth the territories of the Ligurian republic, as it was called, should be annexed to France. These rapacious proceedings at length provoked a fresh confederacy against him, so that before the year was passed, not only England, but Russia, Prussia, and Austria, were in arms to resist his encroachments. Sweden had joined the confederacy, but retired in disgust. Such, however, was the dread of the power or vengeance of France, that several of the German princes, particularly the elector of Bavaria, sided with Napoleon, in opposition to the emperor Francis.

16. By sea, the power of the French and Spaniards combined failed of gaining any advantages over the allies. On the 21st of October, 1,805, in the battle of Trafalgar, a complete victory was obtained by the British fleet, under lord Nelson, who perished in the action. There was a disparity in the number of ships, in favour of the French and Spaniards, of thirty-three to twenty-seven. On the continent, the course of the war was very different. The king of Prussia was dilatory in his proceedings, and even treacherous. Sweden had withdrawn. The emperor Francis employed an inefficient commander, if not worse, (general Mack,) and the Russians, who were more in earnest, were baffled by the unsteady proceedings of their allies, and distressed by want of provisions, sickness, and fatigue. After the battle of Austerlitz, in December, the emperor of Austria, whose capital had been in the hands of the enemy, solicited peace, submitting to surrender what had been allotted to him of the Venetian territories, together with the principalities of Lucca and Piombino; and to acknowledge Buonaparte as king of Italy. Bavaria acquired a part of the Brisgaw and Tyrol. Such were the terms of the peace of Presburgh, October, 1,804.

17. The succession of some of the German states from the emperor of Austria, had, in the mean time, produced changes that require to be noticed. The electors of Bavaria and Wirtemburgh were elevated to the rank of kings of their respective countries; and

Eugene Beauharnois, viceroy of Italy, son of the French empress Josephine, obtained in marriage the daughter of the new king of Bavaria, though she had been previously betrothed to the prince of Baden.

18. The court of Naples, during this war, through the injudicious, but natural, resentment of the queen, sister to the late unfortunate queen of France, had the misfortune to incur the high displeasure of Napoleon, by admitting a British and Russian army to land on its territories. The French despot lost no time in pronouncing sentence on the rebellious neutral. He quickly made it known that the Bourbon dynasty had ceased to reign at Naples. The royal family was compelled to retire to Palermo, and in a short time after, Napoleon conferred the Neapolitan crown on his brother Joseph, much to the discontent, however, of the people, who for some time gave him great disturbance. Joseph was proclaimed king, March 30, 1,806.

19. The emperor of the French had another kingdom in view for his brother Lewis, constable of France. Holland had submitted to several forms of government, without obtaining that order and tranquillity which was supposed to be in the contemplation of those who directed her affairs. It was suggested that a monarchy would remedy all the disorders to which she was exposed; and it was hinted, too plainly to be misunderstood, that it would be agreeable to the emperor, if the leading persons of the state, not the community at large, would give countenance to such a change. So great was the infatuation, or timidity, of the persons to whom these suggestions were made, that they did not scruple to *solicit* the appointment of the emperor's brother, who declared himself king of Holland accordingly, June 5, 1,806. To the credit of the new king, it should be observed, that he soon fell into disgrace with his imperial brother, by being too lenient to his subjects, and by endeavouring to mitigate the rigour of the French decrees.

20. In the year 1,806, Napoleon succeeded in subverting the constitution of the German empire, by detaching many of the principal states, chiefly of the western and southern divisions of Germany, to form what was denominated "*The Confederation of the Rhine*," by which the several princes consented to renounce the laws of the empire, to contract a federative alliance with the French emperor, and to supply him with troops whenever he should demand them. In consequence of this gross defection of so many members, the emperor, by a solemn edict, abdicated the government of the Germanic empire, absolving all the electors, princes, and states, from the obligations by which they stood bound to him, as their legitimate head; thereby terminating, as it were, a government which had subsisted for a thousand years, and been uninterruptedly confided to the house of Hapsburgh from the year 1,438.

21. It seemed as if every thing, at this time, was doomed to fall before the power of the Corsican. Prussia, which had hitherto acted a most unwise part, in neglecting to add its weight to the confederacy of 1,804, and even submitting to be cajoled into an alliance with France, became, in the course of the year 1,806, sensible of her error; but to no good purpose. She now precipitately entered into a war for which she was ill-prepared; with no support but that of Saxony; and having put her army under the command of the duke of Brunswick, sustained two signal and almost

fatal defeats, at Jena and Averstadt, laying the capital open to the advance of the enemy, who entered it in triumph; and, being too well received and entertained by the people, did not fail, as in all other cases, to take due advantage of their willing submission. In the course of the contest, the Saxons were detached from Prussia, and the duke of Brunswick being wounded, and obliged to quit his dominions on the advance of the French, died miserably at Altona: Napoleon, in resentment, meanly refusing to suffer his body to be buried amongst his ancestors.

22. It was during his sojournment in Berlin, November, 1,806, that the French emperor dictated that extraordinary decree, declaring the British islands to be in a state of blockade, though he had no naval force capable of interrupting their commerce in any part of the world. By this decree, the whole trade of Britain was proscribed; no intercourse of any sort was allowed to take place; all British subjects on the continent were threatened with arrest and confiscation of property, and every port shut against English vessels, in Prussia, Denmark, the Hanse towns, Holland, Flanders, France, Spain, Italy, &c.

23. The progress of the French, in the territories of the king of Prussia, occasioned fresh alarm to the emperor of Russia, and to the British government, and procured for Frederick that assistance which his former supineness and intrusion on the Hanoverian states might very reasonably have rendered hopeless. The king of Sweden was also subsidized by England, to send an army into Pomerania; but all the efforts of the allies were insufficient to stop the career of the French. The Russians fought many severe battles, at Eylau, Friedland, &c., but were unable to prevent the French getting possession of Dantzic and Konigsberg; losses so severely felt by the king of Prussia, as to compel him to conclude a separate peace, as a conquered enemy; while Napoleon, with consummate art, not only persuaded Alexander to abandon the king of Prussia to his fate, but to form an alliance with himself, for the further spoliation of the Prussian dominions, and to concur in arrangements very adverse to the general interests of Europe, and serviceable only to his own family. By the treaty of Tilsit, July, 1,807, the emperor of Russia agreed to acknowledge the Rhenish confederacy, now consisting of many states, and *Joseph* and *Lewis* Buonaparte, as kings of Naples and Holland. He suffered the French emperor to confer on his youngest brother, *Jerome*, with the title of king of Westphalia, the Prussian provinces between the Elbe and the Rhine, the states of Hanover, and the territories of the duke of Brunswick, and landgrave of Hesse Cassel, while the greater part of Prussian Poland was given to the elector (now king) of Saxony, with the title of duke of Warsaw; and by secret articles, as it has been alleged, most of the usurpations of the French, in all parts of Europe, were sanctioned and confirmed. During the whole of the years 1,806 and 1,807, the German states were undergoing continual changes, through the overbearing tyranny of Napoleon. All the princes who joined the Rhenish confederation were rewarded with titles or territorial possessions; all who favoured the allies, dispossessed of their dominions, and declared enemies of France. To particularize all these revolutions, few of which were permanent, would exceed the limits of the present work.

24. Among other acquisitions resulting from the treaty of Tilsit, Napoleon recovered the Ionian islands. These islands, subsequent

to the treaty of Campo-Formio, had been greatly agitated and disturbed, and it seemed difficult to know what to do with them. In March, 1,800, however, by a convention between Russia and the Porte, it was settled that Corfu, Cephalonia, Zante, Ithaca, Cerigo, St. Mauro, and Paxo, should be formed into one state, under the guarantee of the contracting parties, by the name of the Ionian republic. By the treaty of Amiens, 1,802, Napoleon engaged to acknowledge the Septinsular republic; but, by the treaty of Tilsit, it was restored to him again by Russia. This treaty, in short, appeared to be dictated entirely by the despot of France. Prussia, abandoned by her Russian ally, suffered dreadfully. The king of Sweden refused to become a party to this memorable convention, and manifested a determination to resist, to the utmost, the encroachments of the French; but he had little judgment or prudence to direct him; and he had not the means to contend against such an adversary as Buonaparte. After many ineffectual attempts to save Stralsund, and keep his army in Pomerania, he was at length compelled to retire, with the loss both of Stralsund and the isle of Rugen.

SECTION XVII.

SPAIN AND PORTUGAL FROM 1,788 TO 1,814.

1. These two countries are by nature so connected, that though their interests are, and generally have been, very different, and the people little disposed to friendly associations, yet, with regard to the affairs of Europe, they have very commonly been involved in the same troubles, and never long permitted to enjoy tranquillity, while the leading powers of the continent have been engaged in war. This has been already sufficiently manifested in the history of these two contiguous kingdoms, during the former part of the eighteenth century, but has been rendered still more conspicuous by the events of the subsequent years.

2. Charles IV. of Spain, came to the crown in December, 1,788, when the French revolution was just beginning; and it was not till some few years after, and in the midst of the reign of terror, that his kingdom became involved in the disturbances of that great catastrophe. The Spaniards, in the year 1,793, offended with the violence offered to the royal family of France, had invaded the latter country, and taken the town of Bellgarde, little foreseeing the speedy and severe reprisals to which they were exposing themselves. Early in the year 1,794, the French, under general Dugommier, invaded Spain, and succeeded, not only in beating the Spanish army, but in securing the occupation of many places of importance. These successes were not only available to the restoration of peace with Spain, but procured for the French, by the treaty of 1,795, the Spanish portion of the valuable island of St. Domingo, in the West Indies, and, in 1,796, an alliance with the Spanish monarch against England,—an alliance fatal to Spain in many respects; her fleet being beaten by the English in battle, off the cape of St. Vincent, the island of Trinidad taken from her, and retained by Great Britain at the peace of Amiens, and her commerce crippled and impeded in all parts of the world.

3. Though she sought, by a large subsidy to France, to be per-

mitted to remain neuter, after the renewal of the war in 1,803, yet she was not long allowed to be at peace. In 1,804, the English, suspicious of her close connexion with France, seized upon some of her treasure ships, coming from South America, with a suddenness judged by many to be not strictly justifiable; and, in 1,805, war was formally declared against Great Britain. But in this new war she was again doomed to suffer misfortune, her fleet being totally beaten by lord Nelson, on the 1st of October, 1,805, in the celebrated battle off cape Trafalgar. (See Sect. XVI., § 16.)

4. During the year 1,806, Spain appeared disposed to break with France, had any misfortune befallen the latter power; but her successes in Prussia seem to have intimidated Spain, and to have induced her, in 1,807, through the manœuvres of Godoy, the Spanish minister, who had a view to the principality of Algarves, to enter into a regular treaty with France, for the partition of Portugal.

5. Hitherto the latter country, since the elevation of Buonaparte to the chief magistracy, had been suffered to remain neuter. The reigning queen having been declared insane, the power had devolved to the prince of Brazil, crown prince, in 1,799, who, in virtue of his purchased neutrality, had been able to keep his commercial relations with England, unmolested by the French, till the treaty just mentioned between the latter power and Spain.

6. France was not long in availing herself of the permission she had obtained to march an army through Spain, for the subjugation of Portugal. Having made demands on the regent of Portugal, with which he could not, in honour, comply, it was declared that the house of Braganza had ceased to reign; and, shortly afterwards, the French army, under general Junot, passed the frontiers. In these extremities, instigated by the English, the royal family determined to embark for America. They set sail on the 21st of November, 1,807; and, on the 30th, Junot, with his army entered Lisbon.

7. The state of Spain, at this period, was undoubtedly such as to encourage the most ambitious views of the French emperor. Nothing could exceed the weakness of the court of Madrid, or the confusion of the national affairs. At the very moment of the partition treaty, the hereditary prince, Ferdinand, who had refused to marry the minister's sister-in-law, on the suggestion of the court, was arrested, imprisoned, and threatened with a criminal prosecution, for having secretly sought a matrimonial alliance with Buonaparte's family. This was followed by disturbances, and the imprisonment of the obnoxious minister, *Godoy*, duke of Alcudia, and, since the convention of 1,795, generally called the "prince of peace." Charles IV., harassed and distressed by these tumults, was induced, on the 19th of March, 1,808, to resign his crown in favour of his son, now become Ferdinand VII.; but he soon afterwards revoked his abdication, as forced upon him, and extorted by the dread of personal violence. Nothing could be more directly calculated to promote the views of Buonaparte than these divisions, whose constant policy it was, in all cases of premeditated conquest, to promote dissension, in order to be called in as an arbitrator or mediator, which was the case in this instance. After Buonaparte had been baffled in his hopes of compelling the king and queen to emigrate, through the resistance of the people of Spain to such a measure, the whole royal family were invited to repair to Bayonne, to confer on the state of affairs; an invitation the most insidious, but which had its effect. On the 14th of April Buonaparte arrived there; Fer-

dinand on the 20th, and on the 1st of May, Charles IV. and his queen, after the favourite, Godoy, had been released, on their application to Buonaparte.

8. The transactions at Bayonne exceeded almost every thing to be met with in any preceding history. The persons invited were exactly those whom Buonaparte would have been glad to have seen driven into his toils: in this case they were weak enough to go thither of their own accord. Having the two kings completely in his power, and beyond the frontier of Spain, he compelled Charles to resume his authority, on purpose that he might resign it into the hands of the French, proposing, on the terms of an equivalent elsewhere, a similar act of renunciation on the part of Ferdinand; which the latter indignantly refusing, was at once declared to be excluded from all he had, and all he might have had, and even threatened with the loss of liberty. This so intimidated the degraded prince, that at length he unconditionally resigned his royal dignity, first into the hands of his father, and through him, into those of Buonaparte, who soon obtained, though in a manner the most extraordinary, the consent of most of the principal personages of the state, as well as of the constituted authorities, to the appointment of his brother Joseph, then king of Naples, to the *vacant* Spanish throne, and to render it hereditary in the family of the usurper. In the mean while, Ferdinand was sent to Valancey, and afterwards to Fontainebleau, as a prisoner, and Charles and his queen to Compiegne: their joint abdication of the Spanish crown was publicly announced at Madrid on the 20th of May, to the great disgust of the Spanish people in general, who soon resolved to be revenged for the horrid indignities they were made to undergo.

9. In the course of the very month in which all the transactions at Bayonne took place, and Joseph Buonaparte entered the capital of Spain as king, the national resentment was manifested by a general rising, and insurrection in all the principal provinces; but it was first in Andalusia that any thing like an organized government was formed for the conduct of the war, on the part of the patriots; there, a provincial *junta*, or council of magistrates, inhabitants, and constituted authorities, was formed, at *Seville*, which led to other conventions of the same nature, in places least molested by the French, and in all of these Ferdinand VII. was proclaimed king, and war openly denounced against the French, accompanied with proclamations and manifestoes, highly creditable to the good sense, spirit, ardour, and patriotism of the Spanish nation, and expressed in terms very different from the language to which the French tyrant had been accustomed. Joseph Buonaparte entered Spain on the 9th of July, 1,808, escorted by four thousand Italian troops, and followed by upwards of one hundred carriages, conveying his suite and the members of the *junta* assembled at Bayonne, to assist at his inauguration. He was ill received, or rather sullenly treated by the inhabitants, on his passage to the capital. Joseph entered Madrid on the 20th of July; at which very time the Spaniards obtained an important victory over a French army marching upon Cadiz, which were compelled to capitulate to the amount of fourteen thousand men, while the French fleet at Cadiz was seized by the vigilance and activity of don Thomas Morla. These successes on the part of the Spaniards, compelled the new king to retire from the capital to Burgos, after plundering the treasury and securing the crown jewels.

10. In the mean while, it was soon discovered that the aid of other powers would be wanted, in order to rescue the kingdom and peninsula from the grasp of Napoleon. Application was accordingly made to the court of London, to the Swedes, and to the Portuguese and Austrians. The former paid a ready and willing attention to the call; and the whole British nation evinced, in an extraordinary manner, the utmost desire to render effectual assistance to Spain, whose cause seemed to be justly interesting to every friend of freedom.

11. While these things were passing in Spain, a similar spirit had arisen in Portugal, against the tyranny and usurpations of the French; and the arrival of a British army, in the month of August, under sir Arthur Wellesley, (afterwards duke of Wellington,) gave timely effect to these patriotic movements. The relief of Portugal was sooner accomplished than proved to be the case afterwards with Spain. On the 21st of August a decisive battle took place at Vimiera, between the French and combined armies of English and Portuguese; in which the former were so entirely beaten as to be obliged to evacuate the country; and which they were enabled to do, by a convention concluded at Cintra, under circumstances considered far too favourable, by Europe in general, and which was resented by the people of England.

12. The evacuation of Portugal, however, at all events, set an army free for the use of Spain, which, at the latter end of the month of October, to the amount of twenty thousand men, entered that country, under the command of sir John Moore; the emperor Napoleon having quitted Paris just about the same time, to take the command of the French army there. Unfortunately, the state of Spain at the moment of this first attempt on the part of England, to give aid to the patriots, was such as greatly to embarrass the British commander: he had been taught (or rather, the government at home had been so) to expect a strenuous co-operation on the part of the Spaniards; in which he was exceedingly disappointed, while he continually received advice of the augmentation of the French forces, to an amount far exceeding all his calculations: nor did he consider even his own army so well-appointed as to enable him to contend, in the heart of the kingdom, whither he was directed to proceed, with any fair probability of success. He was evidently dispirited with the prospect before him; and though a perfectly brave officer, felt himself so ill-supported by the Spaniards, at least, by those who directed the public affairs, (if not even deceived and betrayed,) and so embarrassed by want of money and other supplies, as to be compelled to retire. The retreat of his army, though unhappily disgraced by many irregularities and disorders amongst the soldiery, was conducted, in the face of the enemy, (Buonaparte himself being sometimes present,) with singular courage and dexterity, till they reached Corunna, where, at last, the transports not being arrived, an action with the pursuing army took place, which terminated in favour of the English, though with the loss of the gallant, but unfortunate, commander, whose death was greatly lamented. After this action, on the arrival of the transports, the English troops embarked without molestation, and on the 13th of January, 1,809, set sail for England.

13. Before sir John Moore finally determined upon retiring, he had learned that Buonaparte had recovered possession of the capital, which, after the departure of Joseph, the patriots had endeavoured to fortify and defend; but it was surrendered to the enemy

early in the month of December, 1,808, by the temporary governor, Don Thomas Morla. Spain was far from being subdued at the close of the year 1,808, though the aspect of things was alarming, and the French extremely confident of success. Joseph re-entered Madrid, in great pomp, in January, 1,809. In the mean time, Napoleon had decreed that the inquisition should be abolished, many monasteries suppressed, and the feudal privileges abrogated.

14. After the affair of Corunna, the French army under general Soult, (duke of Dalmatia,) invaded Portugal again, and was able to get possession of Oporto; while another army, under general Victor, threatened Lisbon. It was at this moment that fresh troops arrived from England, under the command of sir Arthur Wellesley, who quickly recovered Oporto, and then turning against Victor, once more relieved Portugal from the presence of the French. In June he entered Spain, and by the 20th of July was in a situation to threaten Madrid; on the 27th and 28th, at Talavera del Reyna, he was attacked by the French under Joseph Buonaparte, assisted by four marshals; but was able, in conjunction with the Spaniards, after a very hard fought battle, to repel them with great loss. Though this victory was not attended with any immediate advantages, and would appear to have been rather rashly hazarded, the British general, for his great skill and conduct during the action, was raised to the peerage by the title of viscount Wellington of Talavera.

15. Though a central junta had been appointed in 1,808, to give consistency and strength to the proceedings of the patriots, they were still ill-prepared either to contend against the enemy alone, or conjointly with the British. In the battle of Talavera, and afterwards, their movements had rather embarrassed than assisted the operations of the latter. It would have been well if the Spaniards, from the first, could have been prevailed upon to appoint lord Wellington generalissimo of all the forces acting against the French. The latter, however, were much harassed by a sort of desultory war, carried on by *guerilla* parties, who intercepted their supplies, and without attempting any regular engagement, (for which, indeed, they were unfit,) were continually attacking them in the way of ambuscade and surprise; for which their superior knowledge of the country evidently gave them great advantages.

16. It is not to be wondered that the extraordinary situation of Spain should occasion great embarrassment in the management of the war. In the place of the supreme central junta of 1,808, a regency had been appointed, and the cortes assembled, but without sufficient effect. The Spanish armies acted without system, and the nation at large manifested a jealousy of their English allies, which prevented such a co-operation as might have brought the whole under one command, to the evident advantage of the cause, in which they must have been, though with different degrees of zeal and judgment, equally interested. This distrust on the part of the Spaniards exposed them also, it is to be feared, to treatment far from conciliatory on the part of the English. The war which was renewed between France and Austria, in 1,809, drew the attention of Napoleon in some degree from Spain: but those differences being soon adjusted, early in the year 1,810, powerful reinforcements were sent from France to the Peninsula, to reconquer Portugal, and "drive the English into the sea." What has been said of Spain is by no means applicable to Portugal: in the latter country, not only a better spirit

was manifested, but the army being placed under British command, and regularly organized, by general lord Beresford, was soon rendered capable of affording very effectual aid and assistance.

17. During the whole of the years 1,810 and 1,811, the contending armies were occupied in striving to gain advantages over each other, which called forth all the skill and judgment appertaining to the science of war. The detail, however, of the several actions which took place, of the investment and capture of the strong holds of the two portions of the Peninsula, do not belong to such a work as the present. It was not till the summer of 1,812, and after the victory gained by lord Wellington over the French under marshal Marmont, in the battle of Salamanca, that the total expulsion of the French, and overthrow of the throne of Joseph, became a matter of little doubt. The battle of Salamanca may be said to have opened the gates of Madrid once more to the patriots and allied army, and restored the Spanish crown to Ferdinand. The battle was fought on the 22d of July. On the 30th, lord Wellington entered Valladolid, the enemy retiring before him; and on the 12th of August, Madrid surrendered to the British arms. Joseph and his suite having previously quitted it. Lord Wellington was received in the capital with the acclamations justly due to the liberator of Spain; but had the Spaniards themselves used the exertions they might have done, (Napoleon being at this time engaged in Russia,) the Peninsula might probably have been sooner delivered from the French, after the recovery of the capital, than proved to be the case.

18. The latter made a stand at Burgos, which was invested by the English, but after a siege of more than a month, abandoned with considerable loss; the British forces being once more obliged to retire as far as Ciudad Rodrigo, on the frontiers of Portugal. The Spaniards, however, at length appeared to be roused to a proper sense of their situation, and wisely confided to lord Wellington the termination of this protracted war. In December, 1,812, he was appointed generalissimo, and distinguished by extraordinary powers.

19. It seemed now to be practicable to end, by a decisive action, the contest for the possession of Spain; and lord Wellington lost no time in seeking the opportunity. He took the field in the middle of the month of May, 1,813, and on the 21st of June, brought the enemy to action on the plains of Vittoria. Never was a victory more decisive than the one obtained at this time by the combined British, Portuguese, and Spanish armies. Joseph and his troops were compelled to quit the field with such extreme precipitation, as to leave behind them fifty pieces of artillery, two thousand carriages of different descriptions, stores, provisions, and an immense booty, consisting chiefly of the plunder of Madrid, fortunately rescued upon this occasion from the usurper, who was present, and very narrowly escaped.

20. After the battle of Vittoria, and the fall of the strong towns of St. Sebastian and Pampeluna, the British, Portuguese, and Spanish troops crossed the Bidassoa, and entered France. Early in March, the city of Bordeaux freely opened her gates to general Beresford, in the name of Lewis XVIII., at the same time admitting the king's nephew, the duke of Angouleme. On the 10th of April, the British stormed the French entrenchments near Thoulouse. On the 12th, general Soult filed out of the town, under the muzzles of the British guns. On the 13th, news arrived of the abdication of Buonaparte, and the entrance of the allied sovereigns into Paris.

It is conjectured that the French commander knew of these things before, but in the hope of gaining some advantage over the invaders of France, concealed it.

21. Before the allies reached Paris, Napoleon had released Ferdinand VII., whose return to Spain was, however, rendered very unacceptable to many who had espoused his cause in his absence, particularly the members of the regency and existing cortes, with whose proceedings, in regard to the new constitution proposed for his acceptance, he expressed himself extremely displeased; they had previously refused to acknowledge a treaty concluded by Ferdinand with Buonaparte. He threw himself also into the hands of those who were friends to the ancient system, which, with extreme bigotry, he endeavoured to re-establish in its worst forms. From that time to the present the nation has been kept in a state of considerable ferment and confusion. By a revolution in March, 1,820, the cortes were restored, and the free constitution of 1,812 proclaimed and sworn to by the king. The inquisition also was finally abolished: but the effects of these last movements remain to be proved.

22. The old king, Charles IV., died at Rome, in 1,819. The battle of Vittoria, which relieved Spain from the presence of the French armies, restored Portugal to her former independence. On the 20th of March, 1,816, the queen, Maria Isabella, died; and was succeeded by the present king, John VI., who had been regent since 1,799, the seat of government being still at Rio de Janeiro, in Brazil.

SECTION XVIII.

FRANCE, FROM THE PEACE OF TILSIT, TO THE ABDICATION OF NAPOLEON 1,814.

1. The treaty of Tilsit left Napoleon at liberty to pursue his career of vengeance and usurpation in other countries. He obtained by it such an influence over Russia, Austria, and Prussia, as to induce them to break with England, without any other reason; and as soon as he had thus disposed of matters in those quarters, he turned his views to the Spanish peninsula, where a Bourbon dynasty still existed. In three months after the signing of the treaty of Tilsit, he concluded the famous partition-treaty with Spain, already spoken of, in virtue of which, French troops were to be allowed to pass into Portugal, for the sacrifice of that ancient kingdom; and afterwards, no doubt, in the views and designs of the French emperor, of Spain itself.

2. Of his subsequent invasion and occupation of both countries, and of the war for several years carried on, before he could be compelled to renounce his usurped dominion in Spain, an account is given in the preceding section. On the 17th of December, 1,807, in the same spirit of resentment against Great Britain, which had dictated the celebrated decree of *Berlin*, declared the British isles to be in a state of blockade, the French emperor issued another decree, at *Milan*, (in consequence of the British retaliatory orders of council, November 21st,) by which every ship which should submit to be visited by the English, or consent to any pecuniary

exactions whatsoever, should be liable to confiscation as a lawful prize; but his vengeance fell hardest upon Portugal, whose commercial and political relations with England so exasperated him, that, in an audience given to the foreign ministers at Fontainebleau, he openly declared, that if the regent of Portugal did not within two months conform to the continental system, and totally renounce his connexions with England, the house of Braganza should cease to reign. Such was the haughty language of this extraordinary man, in the face of Europe, after the convention at Tilsit!

3. In a few days after this denunciation of the Portuguese dynasty, the regent closed his ports against English ships of all descriptions, but not in time to stop the French armies, who pressed so closely upon him, that on the 29th of November, (see the preceding section,) he was obliged to quit his European dominions for Rio Janeiro, in the Brazils, and on the very next day Lisbon was occupied by French troops under general Junot.

4. The short-lived kingdom of Etruria was brought to an end about this time; and the queen-regent, late duchess of Parma, with the king, her son, obliged to depart for Spain, her native country.

5. In March, 1,808, a decree was passed in France, ordaining the renewal of titles of honour, princes, dukes, counts, &c., and creating a new order of hereditary nobility, as essential to an hereditary monarch. About the same time, Joseph Buonaparte was removed from Naples, and made king of Spain; and Joachim Murat, grand duke of Berg, married to the sister of Napoleon, was declared king of Naples.

6. The kingdoms of Naples and Italy being thus entirely in the hands of Buonaparte, in order to prevent their communication from being interrupted by any hostile power, he seized upon the pope's temporalities, for which Pius VI. ventured to excommunicate him. He had the audacity to remind the pope, in thus despoiling him, that the kingdom of Christ was not of this world; though the only reason alleged for what he had done, was, that Pius had refused to declare war against England; a friendly power, and one from which the pope declared he had never received the smallest injury.

7. On the 9th of April, 1,809, war was renewed with Austria; and so rapid was the progress of the French, that after three severe actions at Abensberg, Eckmuhl, and Ratisbon, Vienna was compelled to capitulate on the 12th of May. The Austrians, afterwards, under the archduke Charles, gained some advantages over Buonaparte; but, before the autumn was passed, a peace was concluded, at Vienna, extremely humiliating to Francis II. To France he was obliged to cede the Illyrian provinces; to Bavaria, Saltzburg; to Saxony, the whole of West Gallicia; and to Russia, East Gallicia; he was, moreover, compelled to accede to the continental system against England, and to acknowledge Joseph Buonaparte as king of Spain.

8. But as if these concessions were not sufficient to mortify the pride of the head of the empire, and representative of the house of Hapsburgh and Lorraine, the French emperor, to the surprise of Europe, demanded and obtained in marriage the daughter of Francis II., the archduchess Maria Louisa, having previously been, with great form, divorced from the empress Josephine, with her own consent, for the express purpose of forming a connexion of higher hopes, and affording a prospect of an heir to his newly acquired imperial dominions. The marriage took place at Paris, April 2, 1,810.

9. Intent upon providing for every branch of his family, the grand duchy of Tuscany was revived by Napoleon, in 1,809, and conferred on his sister *Eliza*, princess of Lucca and Piombino. The grand duchy of Berg, vacated by the removal of his brother-in-law, Joachim Murat, to the throne of Naples, was given to Louis, his nephew, son of the king of Holland; and on the 17th of May the pope's temporalities were declared to be incorporated with the French dominions, and the title of king of Rome appropriated to the imperial prince, heir to the French empire. The situation of the papal territories, between the kingdoms of Italy and Naples, was such as in hostile hands might be made use of to intercept the communication between the two; and therefore the pope, who appeared friendly to England, was of necessity to be despoiled of his dominions, but to receive a revenue of two millions of francs. The new constitutional government was to be in full activity and force on the 1st of January, 1,810. On the 14th of January, 1,810, the electorate of Hanover was annexed to the dominion of the emperor's brother, Jerome, king of Westphalia; and on the 20th of March, 1,811, Napoleon was gratified with the birth of a son, who, according to the arrangements already spoken of, was immediately dignified with the title of king of Rome.

10. In June, 1,812, Napoleon, offended with some parts of the conduct of the emperor of Russia, who had begun to appreciate more justly the character of the artful and ambitious Corsican, once more declared war against him, having influence, besides, to prevail upon Prussia and Austria to join him. His advance towards the Russian dominions was most rapid; but, considering the distance to which he was carrying his army, and the inveterate hatred and indignation he had excited by his bold threats against his imperial adversary, his subjects, and his empire, extremely rash. His power, it is true, was immense, 400,000, infantry, 60,000 cavalry, and 1,200 pieces of artillery; Germans, Polanders, Dutch, Swiss, Italians, Spaniards, and Portuguese, being numbered amongst his troops; but nothing could exceed the anger and resentment of the Russians.

11. On the 9th of May the French ruler left St. Cloud; on the 24th of June he crossed the Niemen, and on the 14th of September attained his grand object of entering the capital of the Muscovite dominions. But his reception was far from being such as he expected, or such as he had met with in other capitals. The city was fired by order of the governor, and by the hands of the enraged inhabitants; and the French had only ruins to occupy, in a latitude to which they were totally unaccustomed, and with all the horrors of a Siberian winter before them.

12. On the 10th of October, after having solicited an armistice, and proposed peace, both of which were peremptorily refused, Buonaparte and his disappointed army began their dreary and perilous march back to France. Nothing could exceed the difficulties and distresses to which they were exposed, from the severities of the weather and climate, and the attacks of the Russians, from Moscow to the capital of Lithuania, where they arrived on the 10th of December. On the 6th, the emperor Napoleon totally abandoned his harassed army to its fate, having quitted it at Smorgonie in disguise; destroyed the bridges by which he passed, regardless of those he left behind; and traversing Poland and Germany, made the best of his way to Paris, where he arrived at midnight.

December 18, having lost, or rather sacrificed, upwards of 150,000 men, including prisoners, 167,500.

13. It was naturally expected that this total defeat of all his projects in regard to Russia, together with the miserable condition of his army when it reached the confines of France, would have terminated his giddy career of pride and ambition: but in this the world was deceived. In the following year, he eagerly resumed hostilities, but manifestly to great disadvantage. Though he was readily furnished with a fresh army, amounting to 350,000 men, he had soon opposed to him not only Russia, but Austria, Prussia, and Sweden, subsidized by England. Several of the confederates of the Rhine ventured to abandon his cause; and it became very apparent that the allied powers were more in earnest and more united now than on any former occasion. Many battles were fought in the course of the summer, with doubtful success, till, at last, the great "Battle of Nations," as it has fitly enough been called, took place at Leipzig, in which the French sustained so signal a defeat, as seemed evidently to prognosticate the ruin and discomfiture of the great disturber of Europe. This celebrated battle, or succession of engagements, took place on the 16th, 18th, and 19th days of October. Leipzig was taken only two hours after Buonaparte had effected his escape. The king of Saxony and all his court were captured by the allies; a French garrison of 30,000 men, besides 22,000 sick and wounded, with the French magazines, artillery, and stores. The emperor of Russia, the king of Prussia, and crown prince of Sweden, each at the head of their respective troops, made their entry into the town at different points, after the engagement of the 19th, and met in the great square, amidst the universal acclamations of the people. Just before the battle of Leipzig, the allies derived great advantage from the defection of the kings of Bavaria and Wirtemberg, and the grand duke of Baden, from the cause of France, and the consequent junction of 55,000 of the Bavarian troops; and during the action of the 18th, a party of the Saxons, bringing with them 22 guns, deserted to the crown prince of Sweden, and desired to be led directly against the French. So much was the aspect of things changed with regard to the destinies of Buonaparte, who, on his return to Paris, had but too much reason to declare, (as he did in his speech to the senate on the 14th of November,) "All Europe was with us a year ago,—all Europe is now against us."

14. The immediate consequences of the victory at Leipzig were, the dissolution of the new-erected kingdom of Westphalia, and the grand duchies of Berg and Frankfort. The dukes of Brunswick and Hesse Cassel recovered their dominions, and the prince of Orange was not merely restored to his stadtholderate in Holland, but proclaimed sovereign of the United Netherlands. On the 2d of December, 1,813, the allies passed the Rhine; the southern frontier of the Pyrenees having been invaded by the British and Portuguese in October preceding.

15. Though four great armies of the allies were now within the territories of France, their work was not accomplished. The French generals, and Buonaparte himself, who, in a very affecting manner, quitted Paris on the 25th of January, 1,814, interrupted the progress of the Russians, Prussians, and Austrians, endeavoured to prevent, in every way they could, their advance upon the capital; but all their exertions proved vain, though the attainment of that great object was deferred for some months. It was not till the 31st

day of March, that their triumph may be said to have been completed: on that day the emperor of Russia and the king of Prussia, at the head of their respective armies, entered Paris in the most solemn and imposing manner. On the 2d of April, Buonaparte was formally deposed by the senate, and on the 11th he was permitted to abdicate, upon terms judged by many to be far too favourable. He was allowed to retire to Elba, (a residence of his own choice,) retaining his imperial titles, and having that island and its dependencies assigned to him as sovereign, with a revenue of two millions of francs. The duchies of Parma, Guastalla, and Placentia, were at the same time secured to the empress Maria Louisa, and her descendants, and provision made for all his other relations. Buonaparte, having previously had a guard appointed, set out on the 20th for the seat of his new and very reduced dominions, much exposed occasionally on his passage to popular resentment.

16. On the the entrance of the allies, they were careful in their manifestoes to distinguish between the French people, or nation at large, and the tyrant whom they had conspired to overthrow; and evinced the strongest disposition to bury in oblivion, with becoming magnanimity and forbearance, the numberless insults and injuries they had received at the hands of the French, while under the dominion of their now prostrate foe. They took no steps to force upon them the exiled family, but left the settlement of their government and constitution entirely to the senate and provisional administration. The Bourbons had been proclaimed in the south, and the count d'Artois appeared at Paris on the 13th of April; but the recal of the king was the work of the French themselves, as we shall have occasion to observe in a subsequent section.

SECTION XIX.

POLAND, FROM THE COMMENCEMENT OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY TO THE TREATY OF VIENNA, 1,815.

1. No country in Europe has suffered more from a faulty constitution than the kingdom of Poland. No country has afforded more convincing proofs of the mischiefs appertaining to an elective monarchy, the constant source not only of internal commotions, cabal, and intrigue, but the occasion generally, upon every vacancy, of foreign interference. At no era did Poland suffer more, perhaps, from this combination of evils, than towards the commencement of the eighteenth century; nor has she ever since been able to recover her independence. The arbitrary, though not unprovoked, proceedings of Charles XII. of Sweden, in 1,704, when he deposed Augustus, and insisted upon placing Stanislaus on the throne, in despite of Austria and Russia, plainly showed how little power a divided country possesses against the encroachments of an ambitious neighbour, and how naturally the interference of one such neighbour exposes the invaded country to similar measures on the part of others; for Augustus himself had been previously forced upon the Poles by Russia. From the above period to the present day Poland has been exposed to a continual recurrence of such events; and to promote the views of a combination of foreign potentates, kept in a state of internal disunion and distraction, constantly favourable to their ambitious designs.

2. Augustus, elector of Saxony, who was deposed in 1,704, and compelled formally to abdicate the throne by the treaty of Alt-Ranstadt, in 1,706, was restored by the assistance of Russia, after the battle of Pultawa in 1,709, and reigned for the space of twenty-four years, dying in 1,733. (Sect. I.) His reign was far from being an happy one: he offended the Poles by the introduction of Saxon troops, and by residing too much away from them in his electoral dominions: he lived in the midst of factions and conspiracies, being continually at war with the *dissidents* or *anti-catholics*, while he totally failed in his endeavours to render himself absolute, or the crown hereditary in his family.

3. The war which arose upon the death of Augustus, has been already noticed. Had the Poles been wise enough to remedy that great defect in their constitution, which rendered the crown elective, they could not have done better, perhaps, than to have made it hereditary in the person and family of Stanislaus Lescinsky, the principal competitor of the house of Saxony, he being a Pole by birth, and very amiable in his private character: but they were no longer their own masters; and they were divided amongst themselves to such a degree as to render the interposition of some foreign power almost necessary to determine their choice. Upon this occasion the emperor of Germany, whose niece the young elector of Saxony had married, assisted by the Russians, overcame the French influence which had been exerted in favour of Stanislaus, and, by effectually removing the latter, procured the election to fall on the son of the late king, Augustus III.

4. This king of Poland, on the death of the emperor Charles VI., 1,740, laid claim to the whole Austrian succession; and not altogether without reason, had not the Pragmatic Sanction stood in his way, his wife being the eldest daughter of the emperor Joseph, elder brother of Charles VI.; the object of the Pragmatic Sanction being to secure the inheritance to the females, in default of male issue; and on the demise of Charles VI., his *daughter* becoming his immediate heir and representative, it certainly appeared hard that the daughter of the elder brother, who had been emperor, should be so entirely excluded. The hope of succeeding to some part, at least, of the late emperor's hereditary dominions, induced the king of Poland to enter into a confederacy with Bavaria, Prussia, and France, against the house of Austria; but he derived no advantage from the alliance: he afterwards changed sides, and at the commencement of the seven years' war, as has been before shown, (Sect. VI.) suffered most severely for having espoused the case of the empress queen, and entertained views against Prussia, which the wary sovereign of the latter country found means to detect, and cruelly to revenge.

5. It was not likely that a king who owed his election so entirely to the interference of foreign powers, should acquire any thing like independence, or authority at home or abroad. During the reign of Augustus III. great feuds and animosities prevailed among the Magnats, while the king himself was entirely subject to the influence of Russia; a circumstance so resented by his subjects as to induce them to avail themselves of the privilege of the *Liberum Veto*, to dissolve all the diets he convoked, and thus leave the kingdom almost without any government. Augustus III. died in the year 1,763, at a period when the Russian sceptre had passed into hands well fitted to promote, in every way possible, (just or unjust,) its aggrandizement and splendour. Catherine II. is supposed to have

had her eyes upon Poland before the demise of Augustus, and to have been prepared not only to set aside the son of the latter, but to advance to the vacant throne some creature of her own; she paid no attention therefore to the solicitations of the house of Saxony, and was very shortly relieved, indeed, from all competition in that quarter, by the early death of the new elector. In conjunction with Prussia she succeeded, but not without a spirited opposition on the part of a few Polish patriots, in bestowing the crown of Poland on count Poniatowski, one of her favourites, and a Pole by birth; a man of talent, and amiable in his disposition, but likely to continue, as well as his predecessor, entirely under her control.

6. Nothing could be a greater mockery than the care which the czarina and the king of Prussia pretended to take of the liberties of Poland, at the very moment that they were forcing upon the nation a king of their own choice and nomination. So far from trying to amend their faulty constitution, and eradicate the seeds of future animosities, they particularly entered into an agreement to prevent the king rendering the crown hereditary in his family, or becoming absolute; that is, in fact, *independent*, or powerful; for this was their great object. And when it was to be submitted to the diet to approve their nominee, and declare count Poniatowski king, a Russian army was sent to Warsaw, to support the *freedom* of the election. The *choice* of the diet of course was soon decided to be in favour of the Russian favourite, who became king accordingly, September 7, 1,764, under the name and title of Stanislaus Augustus.

7. From this period, the three neighbouring powers, Russia, Prussia, and Austria, the two former, however, most particularly, may be said to have been interested in the internal dissensions of that unhappy kingdom, which afforded them plausible grounds of interference, and which they could therefore have no sincere inclination to allay or adjust till they had effectually gained their own ends: the object of Russia probably was to maintain her own power and ascendancy over the whole country; but Prussia meditated a partition, which might put her into possession of Polish or Western Prussia, a district of much importance in every point of view.

8. Whatever may have been originally the distinct views of the several parties, it is very certain that they derived peculiar advantages from the extremely unsettled state of the country, which was at this time torn to pieces by the contests and disputes between the catholics and *dissidents*, or dissenters from the established religion: the latter, who since the middle of the sixteenth century had acquired many privileges, were supported by several different foreign powers; those of the Greek church by Russia, and the protestants of all persuasions by Prussia, Denmark, and Great Britain, all of whom were called upon to interpose as guarantees of the famous treaty of Oliva, 1,660. The diet, instigated by the court of Rome and heads of the church, judged it right to uphold the established faith, and Stanislaus, though his principles were more tolerant and liberal, appeared to take the same side, being jealous also of the too great power of Russia, of which he could not fail to be continually reminded, not only by the open favour shown to the *dissidents* by Catherine, but by the insolent superiority assumed by her general, commanding in Poland, prince Repnin, and the extremely arbitrary and sanguinary manner in which the empress sought to maintain her preponderance.

9. In the mean while confederacies were forming in all parts of

the kingdom to restore, if possible, the independence of their country, (such at least was the object of the catholics,) or to procure for the protestants all the rights and privileges to which they laid claim, and of some of which they had been unjustly deprived. The latter, under prince Radzivil, supported by Russian troops, compelled the diet of Warsaw, in the year 1,767, to accede to their demands; this hastened the grand confederacy of the catholics at Bar, in Podolia, in 1,768, whose object was to throw off the Russian yoke, with the aid of Turkey, who had been induced by France to declare war against the Russians in that very year, upon the occasion of the latter having passed their frontier in pursuing a Polish party, and committed considerable depredations.

10. Though the confederate catholics had clearly the good of their country in view, yet such was the influence of Russia, that the king and senate were compelled by Catherine to declare war against the Porte, and so far to counteract, as much as possible, the efforts that were making to accomplish their own independence. In Austria, indeed, during this stage of the business, the confederates at Bar had a friend in Maria Theresa, who espoused the claims of the Saxon family, and who sent them both arms and money, to enable them to check, if possible, the domineering proceedings of the czarina, of which indeed she had good cause to be jealous. But the time was approaching in which, notwithstanding the most striking and formal declarations to the contrary, Poland was to become a prey to her three more powerful neighbours, and when all other feelings were to give way to that of duly apportioning and dividing the spoils of that unhappy country.

11. It seems now to be pretty generally agreed, that the plan of dismembering this unfortunate kingdom originated with the king of Prussia, or his brother, prince Henry; and that it was owing to particular circumstances that they were able to bring the two other parties so readily to acquiesce in their measures of partition. Had Frederick himself been more rapacious, it would probably not have been so easily accomplished, but, in order to gain what he most coveted, for his own share, he appeared willing to allow the other two partitioning powers to acquire rather more than fell to his lot, both in extent of territory and amount of population. In admitting Austria to any share at all, he made no scruple to assert that his principal motive was, that she should bear her part in the blame that must attach to so arbitrary and rapacious an act.

12. Though the Polish king and nation were compelled to acquiesce in these proceedings of the three powers, they did not do so without remonstrating in terms the most striking and dignified; accompanying their remonstrances and manifestoes with an open appeal to the several states which had guaranteed the integrity of Poland; but all in vain. They obtained no assistance from foreign states, no abatement of their demands on the part of the partitioning powers, and were at length obliged, by a solemn diet, to sanction this gross dismemberment of their country. In two several discussions of the case, however, in the senate, and assembly of Nuncios, the minority on the division was most numerous and respectable. In the former, the question was carried by a majority of *six* only, in the latter by *one*. The motive alleged by the partitioning powers, for this extraordinary proceeding was, that they were anxious to amend the constitution, to preserve the liberties of Poland, and to appease the disorders which had for so long a

space of time disturbed the country, but they fulfilled none of these pretended purposes. They did nothing to amend the constitution, but imposed a new one upon them, fraught with those very imperfections, of which they might for ever continue to take advantage. They perpetuated the elective monarchy, abridged more than ever the authority of the king, and continued the *liberum veto*, a sort of tribunitial privilege, exceedingly inimical to the peace of the country. So far from upholding, they trampled upon their liberties in every way they could, and promoted the disorders they pretended to remove, by encouraging, rather than checking, the licentious conduct of their soldiery. In fact, a greater act of atrocity, or a more barefaced mockery of national feelings, never perhaps took place, or was even attempted, than in the dismemberment of the kingdom of Poland. Austria and Prussia did, indeed, make an attempt to vindicate their claims to the countries they took possession of; but Russia scarcely judged it necessary to make any declaration to that effect. The archives of Prussia and Hungary were ransacked, and titles revived and insisted upon, which, to say the least, had been in abeyance for many centuries. How far this measure may justly be said to have affected the balance of power in Europe, is a distinct case. For a long series of years, if not of ages, Poland had been so ill governed, or so weak, as to have had little influence on that balance, though her situation seemed to point her out, and still appears to do so, as capable of materially influencing or counteracting the operations of her many powerful and ambitious neighbours, Russia, Prussia, Austria, and Turkey. The worst consequence, however, arising from the confederacy against Poland, seems to have been the countenance thereby given to the partitioning system in general.

13. It was in the year 1,775 that the division was finally agreed to, and settled, and even sanctioned by the Polish diet. Of somewhat more than *thirteen thousand* square German leagues of territory, the partitioning powers took a good third, taking at the same time no measures to lessen the evils arising from the defective constitution of Poland, in the portion allotted to the natives. It must be acknowledged, that they bestowed great pains on the improvement of their respective shares; but no benefits of this nature, conferred on particular parts of the country, could compensate for the unfeeling depredations committed upon the whole.

14. The following has been given as a fair representation of the parts allotted to the several powers, by the delegates appointed to adjust the respective claims. Other accounts, indeed, are extant, which it would be difficult to attempt to reconcile with the one we are about to give; a very exact statement, however, may not be necessary. The Russian allotment consisted of Polish Livonia, parts of the palatinates of Witepsk, Polotsk, and Minsk, and the whole palatinate of Mcislaw, containing a population of 1,500,000 souls. The king of Prussia obtained the district called Royal, or Western Prussia, excepting the towns of Dantzic and Thorn, with a population of 360,000 souls. Austria gained a large territory in the south of Poland, comprising Red Russia, Gallicia, and parts of the palatinates of Cracow, Sandomir, Lublin, Bezk, Volhynia, and Podolia, containing a population of 2,500,000 souls, and the valuable salt-works of Vielitzka, which produced an annual revenue of £90,000. This district was annexed to the Austrian territories, under the ancient appellation of the kingdoms of Gallicia and Lodomeria. Such

were the results of what is now distinguished by the name of the FIRST partition of Poland.

15. The little assistance Poland received to ward off the disgrace and misery of this first partition, the extraordinary apathy with which it seemed to be beheld by the other powers of Europe, left little hopes of her regeneration, or escape from the toils into which she had fallen; nor indeed has she ever escaped from them, or recovered the smallest degree of independence. After the first partition, the object she had most to dread was some accidental disunion of the partitioning powers, who would be sure to wreak their vengeance upon her; and an event of this very nature seems to have been the cause of what has been called the SECOND partition, in 1,793. Russia and Austria, in the years 1,787 and 1,788, by too close an alliance, having given umbrage to the king of Prussia, he insisted that the constitution formed for Poland, in 1,773, was void, and offered to assist the Poles in framing a new one, which was completed under his auspices, May 3, 1,791. Had this constitution been able to keep its ground, Poland, so much of it at least as remained to the natives, might have recovered some degree of credit and freedom; it was in a great measure the work of real patriots, enlightened and moderate reformers; it abolished the *liberum veto*, and the elective monarchy, except in the case of the extinction of some hereditary dynasty; it rendered the person of the king inviolable, but gave him responsible ministers; it provided a representative senate, not much differing from the English house of commons. Unhappily, this good work found enemies amongst the ancient nobles, who did not like to give up their pretensions to royalty, and who had recourse to the old and ruinous expedient of inviting foreign help, always at hand to avail itself of the internal commotions of that devoted country. Russia was called in, by the confederates of Targovicz, and a renewal of losses and calamities ensued of course. The king of Prussia, so far from supporting the new constitution, the diet, or the king, as he seemed absolutely bound to do, by his own acts, eagerly seized upon the towns of Dantzic and Thorn, which had been specially excepted in the last partition, joined the czarina, in her efforts against the patriots, under the brave Kosciusko, and finally succeeded in prevailing over a country, which, from the enthusiasm and spirit displayed on this occasion in her defence, deserved a better fate. By the *second* partition, in 1,793, Russia is said to have acquired 4,000 German square miles of territory, in Volhynia, Lithuania, Podolia, and the Ukraine; and Prussia, besides the towns of Dantzic and Thorn, 1,000 square miles in south Prussia, with all the Hanseatic towns. A *third* and last partition soon followed, in the year 1,795, between Russia, Prussia, and Austria, which may be said to have put an end to the kingdom and republic of Poland; Stanislaus, its unhappy monarch, being removed to Russia, where he soon after died, February 12, 1,798. In this last partition, Cracow was given to Austria, and Warsaw to Prussia. From the resistance of the natives, who gained greater advantages in many engagements than could have been expected from the nature of their force, the slaughter accompanying these latter revolutions was dreadful, and on the part of the Russians attended with circumstances of cruelty too much resembling what had taken place in 1,772.

16. It would be difficult to describe the state of Poland, from the period of the *last partition*, in 1,795, to the treaty of Vienna, in

1,815. The injuries the natives had experienced at the hands of the three partitioning powers very naturally disposed them to accept any offers from the enemies of their oppressors; and, as Buonaparte had frequent opportunities of making such offers, it is not to be wondered that he should have obtained their assistance, and subjected them, more or less, to his government and control; but as he was only at times in opposition to, and as often allied with one or other of the three powers, Russia, Austria, or Prussia, he was never able to propose their entire emancipation, even if he had desired it. Thus continually deceived and mortified, they derived no advantage from the aid they gave to France, if we except that tendency towards the recovery of a separate existence, (for it can scarcely be called more,) the creation of the grand duchy of Warsaw, in 1,807, which, by the treaty of Tilsit, and with the consent of Buonaparte, was consigned to the king of Saxony; the emperor of Russia at the same time acquiring much of Poland from Prussia. In 1,812, the kingdom was declared by the diet of Warsaw to be re-established; and by the treaty of Vienna, in 1,815, being formally delivered up by the king of Saxony, it became annexed to Russia, and was declared to be, "irrevocably attached to it by its constitution, to be possessed by his majesty the emperor of all the Russias, his heirs and successors in perpetuity." The part assigned to Prussia took the name of the grand duchy of Posen. The salt-mines of Vielitzka were confirmed to the emperor of Austria, and such districts as had been acquired by the treaty of Vienna, in 1,809. The town of Cracow was declared to be for ever a free, independent, and strictly neutral city, under the protection of Austria, Russia, and Prussia. The navigation of the rivers and canals, in all parts of ancient Poland, (as it existed in the year 1,772,) was by particular treaties, between Russia, Austria, and Prussia, declared to be free, so as not to be interdicted to any inhabitant of the Polish provinces, belonging to either of the three powers.

SECTION XX.

GREAT BRITAIN, FROM THE PEACE OF AMIENS, 1,802, TO THE DEATH OF GEORGE III., 1,820.

1. Before one year had passed from the conclusion of the peace of Amiens, circumstances took place which too plainly indicated a strong probability of the renewal of hostilities, and so early as the month of May, 1803, letters of marque and reprisal were again issued against the French, by the British government, apparently with the full consent of the people at large, notwithstanding the enthusiastic joy which had been expressed on the termination of the war in the year preceding. It was upon this occasion that the first consul had recourse to a measure, singular in its nature, and which exposed many persons and families to great inconvenience. He forcibly detained all the English who happened to be in France, not only for purposes of business, but of pleasure or curiosity; nor, with very few exceptions, were any of them able to return to their native country, for the long space of ten or eleven years. Preparations also were made for the invasion of England, which only excited a stronger disposition, on the part of the latter country, to pre-

pare against such attempts, in a way well calculated to destroy at once all the enemy's hopes and prospects of success; in Ireland, indeed, a new conspiracy was set on foot, which was supposed to rest on some promised support from France; but this was denied by the conspirators themselves, and the disturbance soon quelled, without spreading, in fact, beyond the capital.

2. Though the king of Great Britain had declared, that, with regard to his electoral states, he should remain neuter, Buonaparte did not neglect such an opportunity of wounding his feelings, by the speedy occupation of Hanover, under circumstances peculiarly aggravating to the people. Early in the month of June, 1,803, the Hanoverian troops were made to lay down their arms, and engage not to serve against the French without a previous exchange.

3. Holland was still too much under subjection to France, to be permitted to remain at peace; letters of marque were, therefore, also issued against the Batavian republic, on its refusal to agree to a perfect neutrality.

4. In 1,804, a change of ministry in England brought Mr. Pitt again into power, at a moment when the affairs of the continent, and the increased power of the first consul, who, in the course of the same month, assumed the imperial dignity, demanded all his attention. Before the conclusion of the year, the aid which Spain was compelled to render to the French, together with certain appearances of hostile preparations in her ports, exposed her to an attack on the part of Great Britain, which soon drew from her a declaration of war, very fatal to her interests, though scarcely to be avoided, considering the circumstances in which she had been placed by the extraordinary proceedings and demands of the British government, which was supposed to have violated the strict rules of justice, if not of international law, by arbitrarily and prematurely seizing her *treasure-ships*, on their passage to her ports, in an action perfectly unforeseen and unexpected, and in which many lives were lost.

5. But if the character of the British nation or government suffered in any respect from errors or mistakes in the commencement of the war, its naval power and credit were highly advanced before a year had passed, by the splendid victory obtained over the Spanish and French fleets combined, off cape Trafalgar, in October, 1,805; a victory not achieved, however, without a correspondent loss, as has been before stated, in the death of the very celebrated lord Nelson, commander of the British squadron, who fell early in the action, and whose body, being afterwards brought to England, was buried with very unusual honours in the centre of St. Paul's cathedral.

6. In 1,806 died Mr. Pitt; a minister whose extraordinary talents and integrity of life attached to him many friends and adherents, by whom he was ably supported through a very arduous contest; a contest which, though some thought it might have been avoided, others as confidently regarded as entirely just and necessary, and a timely security against the propagation of revolutionary principles, more threatening and dangerous than any aggressions purely hostile. It is always easy to say, such and such events would not have happened, had a different course from the one actually adopted been pursued; but this is at best mere matter of surmise. It is impossible now to speak decisively of what might or might not have been the consequences of a longer forbearance from war; it is ex-

tremely certain that many untoward circumstances prevented the accomplishment of all that Mr. Pitt had in view, and that the power of the French emperor, instead of being checked, was advancing with rapid strides to a pitch of uncontrollable and extended dominion, when the former was seized with that illness which terminated his life, in the forty-seventh year of his age. On his death, a new administration was formed, including his great parliamentary opponent, Mr. Fox, who survived him for the short space of only seven months. It is highly creditable to the character of the British nation to record, that these two eminent statesmen, who had been for a long time so much opposed to each other, but whose abilities and sincerity in an opposite line of politics appear to have been duly acknowledged and appreciated by all parties at the period of their deaths, were buried at the public expense, in Westminister Abbey, so near to each other, that one stone might have covered the remains of both.

7. During the short time that Mr. Fox was a member of administration, fresh attempts were made to terminate the war, by negotiation, but in vain. Though the French emperor would have agreed to many cessions of importance, both to Great Britain and her ally, the emperor of Russia, it was found impossible to detach from his influence and usurped authority some of the most important parts of Europe, particularly Holland, Switzerland, Italy, and Germany.

8 The system so generally adopted by the tyrant of France, of converting to his own use the resources of all other countries, which could in any manner be rendered subservient to his purpose, led the administration which succeeded that in which Mr. Fox had a share, to set on foot an expedition which has been judged by many incapable of justification on any principles of political expediency, and which was unfortunately attended with more fatal consequences than were at first perhaps contemplated. Upon what information the ministry proceeded did not fully appear at the time, but it was alleged that they had reason to know that the French ruler designed to occupy Holstein, and convert to the purposes of an invasion of the British dominions the Danish marine.

9. It was determined, in order to prevent such an accession to the naval power of France, to obtain possession of the fleet on which the enemy had thus fixed his view, and though it might perhaps have been both hoped and expected by the British government, that the Danes would be brought peaceably to surrender into their hands for a time a fleet thus devoted to the ruin of a friendly power, yet the result turned out to be far otherwise. The Danes resisted the demand, and though quite unable effectually to defend against the forces opposed to them either their fleet or their capital, did not capitulate till about two thousand persons had lost their lives, and many houses been burnt in a manner that threatened the entire destruction of the city. The end, it is true, was accomplished, of getting into the power of the English all the Danish ships of war, (eighteen ships of the line and fifteen frigates,) and naval stores; but it is to be feared that it will be long before the irritation caused by this sudden and unexpected attack on a brave people, not at war with England, will be allayed or forgotten.

10. In vindication of the suspicions of the British ministry, it was asserted that the Danish marine and arsenals were found in a state which left no doubt of the intrigues and agency of the French, ac-

cording to the judgment of the officers and seamen employed in the expedition. The general designs of France seem, indeed, to have been decisively manifested, in the measures they now openly pursued, about the same time, of appropriating to themselves the fleet of Portugal, and for similar purposes, but which, fortunately without so melancholy a catastrophe, was rescued from the grasp of the French ruler, by its timely removal, under the protection of a British armament, to the ports of Brazil. The difference between the two cases seemed to be this; that in getting possession of the latter fleet we were actually assisting an ally; in the former, we were compelling a neutral to adopt a measure judged to be unnecessary on her part, and on suspicions, the grounds of which she disavowed; but the state of Europe, at that period, appears to have been such, especially with regard to the minor states, as to justify precautions against French power and French intrigue, seldom, if ever, resorted to in other instances: it may also be added, that Portugal unreservedly communicated to England the avowed designs of France; Denmark, to say the least, acted with a reserve far from friendly, and resisted all negotiation; the consequences to the latter, however, were certainly deplorable.

11. It was in the year 1,807, that the royal family of France, whose situation on the continent became every day more alarming and insecure, took refuge in England; they fixed their residence at Hartwell, in Buckinghamshire, his majesty styling himself the count de Lisle, and modestly declining all honours and attentions, beyond such as might be due to a private nobleman.

12. The vindictive measures adopted by the French government to ruin the trade and commerce of Great Britain, naturally drew from the latter retaliatory expedients, which were more or less approved, as affecting neutral and friendly powers, but which could scarcely have been avoided, without surrendering her maritime rights, and submitting to a pretence of blockade on the part of a power, whose ships had been fairly driven from the sea by the British fleets. *Orders in council* were issued in the months of January and November, 1,807, not only prohibiting all trade between the ports of France and its allies, but ultimately compelling all neutrals, trading to France, to stop at a British port, and pay a duty in proportion to the value of the cargo. These embarrassments to trade in general could not fail to excite great uneasiness in all parts of the world; but the commencement of them is justly to be imputed to the extraordinary decree, issued by the French ruler at Berlin, (the basis of the "continental system,") November, 1,806, an account of which is given in Sect. XVI.: unfortunately the impossibility of satisfactorily exempting other states from the effect of these prohibitory and regulating decrees, on the part of the two rival countries, involved England in a very unpleasant dispute with the United States of America.

13. Of the part England took in the affairs of Spain and Portugal, from 1,808 to 1,814, an account is to be found elsewhere. (See Sect. XVII.) It may be sufficient to say, that, during the whole contest, the emancipation of those two ancient kingdoms from the power of the French seemed to be contemplated by the whole mass of British subjects as their own cause. The people of Great Britain and Ireland, on the first application for assistance from Spain, appeared ready to rise in a body. They hailed the dawn of liberty on the continent with the most enthusiastic feelings. The deputies from the

supreme junta of Seville, did not arrive in England, on their mission to the British government, till the 24th of July, 1,808; but long before that, other deputies from the principality of Asturias had been received in London, with the most cordial tokens of esteem and friendship. They were splendidly entertained by the City of London, the Bank, and other public bodies, as well as by individuals of the highest distinction. Subscriptions were opened in London, Liverpool, Bristol, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Dublin, Cork, Waterford, and many other places, for supporting the cause of Spain; and several military corps, militia, and volunteers, offered their services. Government supplied them immediately with three hundred thousand pounds in dollars, five thousand muskets, thirty thousand pikes, and an immense quantity of powder and balls, with promises of more effectual aid, which were ultimately amply fulfilled. The spirit thus displayed by the British public, on the first certain intelligence received of the anti-gallican insurrection in Spain, may be said to have continued unabated till, through the matchless skill and valour of the confederate armies under the duke of Wellington, the French were finally driven from the peninsula in 1,814, as related in our account of Spain.

14. His majesty George III., having, in the month of October, 1,809, entered upon the 50th year of his reign, the event was celebrated throughout the nation in a very striking manner, by services of thanksgiving in all the churches and chapels, with suitable discourses, illuminations, feasts, and other testimonies of joy, but particularly by liberal benefactions to the poor. In the month of November in the following year, his majesty, much troubled and afflicted by the long illness and death of his daughter the princess Amelia, had an alarming return of his former complaint, which terminated in a second suspension of his regal functions, and from which he never so sufficiently recovered as to be able to transact any business of state. On the 20th of December, his royal highness the prince of Wales was appointed regent, subject for a period to restrictions similar to those which had been proposed in 1,788–9. This plan was violently opposed, as unconstitutional and impolitic, but finally carried in February, 1,811. The bill was completed and presented to his royal highness, who did not hesitate to accept the trust, though not without remonstrating against the limitations and restrictions imposed on him. Early in 1,812, however, these restrictions were to cease. Great changes in administration had been contemplated, and many negotiations were carried on to this effect, but without accomplishing that union and coalition of parties, which the regent himself seemed to desire. Not being disposed to withhold his confidence therefore from those who had so long served his royal father, most of them, on the termination of the restrictions, were continued in their places. A most melancholy catastrophe, which occurred in the month of May, 1,812, deprived the nation of the services of Mr. Percival, who was assassinated in the lobby of the house of commons, by a person of the name of Bellingham, in revenge, as he himself stated, of a private injury; a denial of justice, as he called it, on the part of government. It seemed to be accidental that the premier happened to be the individual first presented to his notice on that fatal day.

[The paragraphs 15 and 16 of Dr. Nares' work, giving a very short account of the differences between the English and American governments in 1,812, 13, 14, and 15, are omitted. For a more particular, and we trust more impartial account of the war between

Great Britain and the United States, the reader is referred to Section VI. of Part Fourth, near the close of this volume.]

17. The year 1,814, will ever be memorable in the English history, for the very extraordinary influence of foreigners of the highest distinction, from the opposite shore, on the downfal of Buonaparte, and the conclusion of a war, which had agitated the whole of Europe. The list of visitors invited to the grand civic feast given by the corporation of London, and all of whom were present, but a very few, whom illness kept away, may convey some idea of the splendid scenes that took place in different parts of the kingdom in honour of these illustrious guests. It was on the 18th of June, that the dinner was given to the following very exalted personages:

The PRINCE REGENT; the EMPEROR of RUSSIA; his sister, the GRAND DUCHESS of Oldenburgh, (afterwards QUEEN of WIRTEMBURG;) the KING of PRUSSIA; the Royal Dukes of England: the PRINCE ROYAL of Prussia; Prince *William* of Prussia, son of the king; Prince *Frederick*, nephew of the king; Prince *Henry*, brother of the king; Prince *William*, brother of the king; Prince *Augustus*, the king's cousin; the PRINCE of ORANGE; the PRINCE ROYAL of Wirtemburg; the PRINCE ROYAL of Bavaria; the PRINCE of Oldenburg; the PRINCE of Cobourg; PRINCE Charles of Mecklenburgh; DUKE of Saxe Weimar; Prince Gagarina; Prince Czeretorinke; Prince Radzivil; Marshal Prince Blucher; Prince Hardenburg; Prince Metternich; Prince Lichtenstein; Prince and Princess Volkouske; his highness the Duke of Orleans.

These illustrious foreigners were entertained, at great cost and expense, during their stay, both by the court and public bodies: the prince regent accompanied them on a visit to the university of Oxford; and to Portsmouth, where they had an opportunity of witnessing a naval review.

18. In May, 1,816, the heiress to the British crown, princess Charlotte, only child of the regent, was married to his serene highness Leopold George Frederic, prince of Cobourg. This marriage was contemplated by the nation as an object of the highest hopes; and for several months the amiable and exemplary conduct of her royal highness cheered the people with the brightest prospects of future good; but a very sudden and unexpected disappointment took place in the month of November, 1817; the princess was delivered of a still-born male infant, and survived her delivery only a few hours. Nothing could exceed the concern manifested by the public on this melancholy and distressing occasion.

In the month of November, in the following year, her majesty queen Charlotte died at Kew, after a long and painful illness; and on the 29th of January, 1820, was followed by her royal consort king George III. His majesty died at the castle of Windsor, at a very advanced age, and in the sixtieth year of his reign; greatly beloved by his subjects, and universally respected for his many amiable and royal virtues.

SECTION XXI.

FRANCE, FROM THE ENTRANCE OF THE ALLIES INTO PARIS, MARCH, 1,814, TO THE FINAL EVACUATION OF IT BY THE FOREIGN TROOPS, 1,818.

1. Soon after Buonaparte departed for Elba, Louis XVIII. was freely *recalled* to the throne of his ancestors; he had been resident in many places since his first emigration, and been driven from almost all, by the approach of republican troops, the dread of republican vengeance in those who afforded him a refuge, and not unseldom the fear of poison or assassination. England, at length, afforded him the asylum he sought in vain elsewhere: there he lived secure against French armies, French influence, and, as far as Englishmen could protect him, the poisonous drug, or the sword of the assassin. When the way was opened for him to return to his native country, and receive the crown and the throne, which his people now *offered* him, but which had been so insulted and abused, it was characteristic of Englishmen to rejoice at his restoration, and at the great change prepared for him, from a state of banishment, outlawry, and dependence, to the recovery of one of the most brilliant thrones of Europe, and from which his unhappy brother had fallen in a way to excite the sympathy of every feeling and generous mind: his departure from England to France was accompanied with the acclamations and sincere gratulations of all ranks of people: the prince regent personally escorted him not only to London, but from London to Dover; and took leave of him, in sight of the French coast, in a manner the most affecting and impressive. White flags were exhibited on almost all the churches, near which he had to pass, and nothing could exceed the joy expressed upon the overthrow of Buonaparte, and the restoration of the Bourbons, both in England and France.

2. In the latter country, however, it may be naturally supposed, the joy could not be general, nor much of what was expressed outwardly, sincere: Louis XVIII. returned to France, not as it was when he left it, but revolutionized; it had undergone great changes, and a large proportion of the population was deeply interested in those changes; yet many, who returned with him, were quite as deeply interested, in absolutely reversing what had passed, restoring what had been abolished, reclaiming what had been alienated, if not even punishing and degrading those who had participated in or been benefited by such revolutions.

3. In the mean while the exiled emperor was not quiet; he was too near to the French coast to be kept in ignorance of what was passing, and of the sentiments entertained towards him, by those who had participated in his many glorious and triumphant achievements, and who could ill brook the degradation to which they might be doomed by the restoration of the Bourbons; the army, in particular, to whom indeed he had behaved not only ill, but cruelly, in his retreat from Russia and Leipzig, had yet been raised by him to such a pitch of glory and pre-eminence, as might reasonably account for its feeling both disgust and resentment, at having been compelled to submit to the intrusion of strangers into their country and metropolis; strangers, whom they had previously been able not only to defy and resist, but in some instances, to triumph over in their own capitals.

4. The situation of the king of France, therefore, on his return to his dominions, however acceptable to the greater part of Europe, could scarcely be such as he might himself wish or desire: it was impossible for him to return to the ancient state of things; and he must have foreseen how difficult it would be to render any new constitution agreeable or suitable to all parties. The senate, indeed, had prepared a new constitution before his arrival; one which bore a considerable analogy to that of England; the legislative power being placed in the hands of the king, the senate, and the representatives of the nation at large; and the amount, nature, and distribution of the public taxes, left exclusively to the decision of the latter: the deputies were to exercise their functions for the space of five years; the dignity of senator to be hereditary, and to be conferred by the king, though with a limitation as to numbers, which were not to exceed 200; religious freedom, and the liberty of the press, were duly provided for: this constitution was to be presented to him, to be accepted previously to his inauguration; but on his arrival at Paris, he did not choose to bind himself, further than to promise his people such a constitution as they would have no reason to disapprove: his first care was, to arrange matters with the foreign potentates who occupied his capital, so as to be able, as speedily as possible, to get rid of their numerous armies; whose presence could not fail to be a subject of uneasiness to his own armies, as well as to the people in general: to the credit of the troops themselves, under such extraordinary circumstances, it should be observed, that nothing could exceed the order and forbearance with which they conducted themselves, as victors, in a capital, which, in the way of simple retribution, stood fairly exposed to plunder, exaction, and devastation.

5. Though it was soon settled to refer to a convention at Vienna the final adjustment of matters, and arrangement of peace; yet France was quickly made to understand, that her boundaries must be greatly contracted, and that the independence of most of the newly annexed states and territories must be freely acknowledged; to these terms both the king and his minister, prince Talleyrand, plainly saw the necessity of yielding, though the pride of the French was likely to be wounded by it.

6. On the 4th of June, the king presented to the senate and legislative body his own new constitution, which differed in several points from that submitted to him on his arrival; it reserved to himself the right of proposing laws, and the assembly could only request to be permitted to discuss particular points; instead of an hereditary senate, peers, chosen by the king for life were to compose that body, without limitation of numbers; the popular representatives were to consist of 262, not under 40 years of age: they were to be convoked every year, and were to have the power of impeaching the ministers for treason or extortion; the king was to appoint the judges, and trial by jury was to be continued: the press was placed under a censorship, and an order was given for closing the theatres and shops on the sabbath; an order not only extremely unpopular at the time, but, as it would seem, ineffectual. In nominating the senate, some of Buonaparte's courtiers and marshals were included, particularly Talleyrand, who became minister for foreign affairs.

7. The king, who from the first commencement of the revolution had displayed a disposition to favour the rights of the people, more than others of his family, or the chiefs of the emigrants, was little likely of himself to deviate from the principles of the constitution,

or to disturb unnecessarily the existing state of things, in which so many interests were involved, but he was supposed to have around him persons still bigotted to the ancient system, and anxious to recover all that they had forfeited by the course of the revolution. These things, together with the dissatisfied state of the army, paved the way for the return of Buonaparte.

8. The probability of such an event seems to have been strangely overlooked by those who were most interested in preventing it: the popularity of the deposed emperor had been miscalculated. On the 1st of March, 1,815, he landed once more on the shores of France, with only 1,140 attendants; an attempt which many judged to be altogether hopeless, yet, to the utter surprise of those who thought so, his progress towards Paris, though not unmolested, afforded him every hour, from the defection of the troops sent against him, stronger hopes of recovering his authority. On the 20th of March the king was persuaded to retire from Paris; and on the evening of that very day Buonaparte entered it, being hailed by the populace, which had so lately saluted the return of the Bourbons in the same manner, with the loudest acclamations.

9. He was soon convinced, however, that he was not returned to his ancient power, and that he, quite as much as Louis XVIII., would now be expected to gratify the people with a free constitution; he speedily therefore, issued some popular decrees, establishing the freedom of the press; abolishing the slave-trade; and regulating the taxes which weighed most heavily on the people; he also condescended to offer to them the plan of a constitution, very different from the system of despotism upon which he had before acted, and containing many excellent regulations: he had, however, but little time to spare for legislative measures. A manifesto of expulsion and extermination had been issued against him by the congress at Vienna, signed by the plenipotentiaries of Austria, France, Great Britain, Russia, Prussia, Sweden, Spain, and Portugal, and it was indispensably necessary for him to prepare for war. To this manifesto on the part of the allied powers, Buonaparte was not slow in dictating and presenting to Europe a counter manifesto, asserting in the strongest terms the right of the French to adhere to the dynasty they had chosen on the expulsion of the Bourbons; and decaring that the confederate princes had been the first to violate the treaty of Fontainebleau; but it is remarkable that, though Buonaparte so peremptorily asserted, in his manifesto, the right of the French freely to choose what dynasty they pleased to reign over them, he had inserted in his new constitution an article, totally, and for ever, to exclude the Bourbon family from the succession to the throne.

10. It was not till June that the several armies were prepared to take the field, and between the 15th and 19th of that month, the fate of Europe seemed once more to become dependent on the decision of the sword. The battle of Waterloo, which took place on the 18th of June, and in which the British and Prussian armies, under the duke of Wellington and marshal Blucher, totally defeated the French, effectually put an end to all the hopes and prospects of Buonaparte. On the 20th, he arrived at Paris, the first of his fugitive army; and in a very few days after, was compelled a second time to resign his usurped dominions. On his retirement from Paris, his destination appeared to be a matter of extreme doubt, till on the 15th of July he put himself into the hands of the English by going on board the Bellerophon man of war, and surrendering himself and suit uncondition-

ally to captain Maitland, the commander of that ship, who sailed immediately to Torbay with his prisoners, none of whom were permitted to land.

11. On the 3d of July, not however without a struggle on the part of the French army, Paris had formally surrendered to the duke of Wellington and prince Blucher, who took possession of it on the 7th, and on the 8th the king returned, greeted, as before, with the cheering and acclamations of the fickle multitudes who thronged the roads by which he had to pass. By the terms of capitulation, the French troops under Davoust had been made to retire beyond the Loire, which they did with sullen indignation; but on the arrival of the Austrians and Russians at Paris, came over to the king. It was very obvious, that, having Buonaparte once more in their power, the allies could not fail to provide all possible precautions against his return into any situation which might afford him the means of communicating with his old adherents, and thereby resuming the station he had occupied for so many years, to their extreme annoyance. The small, rocky, and totally detached island of St. Helena, in the Atlantic ocean, seemed the only secure place of abode to which he could be assigned. It was therefore agreed to send him thither, under the custody of the British government, but under the eye, also, of commissioners appointed to reside there, on the part of the Austrian, Russian, and French governments. On the 17th of October, 1,815, he arrived at his destined residence.

12. Amongst the measures adopted by the military commanders of the foreign troops at Paris, none seemed more to occupy the attention of Europe than the determination they formed to restore to the places which had been robbed of them the valuable works of art, which the victories of the French armies had put into their possession, not merely in the way of plunder, but upon a regular system of purloining every thing which could add to the splendour and greatness of their own capital, however grating to the feelings of those from whom they were taken, and however severely it must have added to the mortifications they had been doomed to suffer from weakness or defeat. The justice of such a step could not be disputed, though nothing was more likely to excite the resentment and indignation of the French, in whose hands, it must be acknowledged, had they been properly acquired, they were likely enough to be preserved and exhibited to the world, in a manner the most conducive to the glory and immortality of the illustrious artists to whom they owed their origin; but, as an act of honourable restitution, in many instances, to persons and places whose claims would otherwise have been mocked and derided, the interposition of the two victorious chiefs upon this occasion may be justly admired. Prince Blucher, indeed, had a direct interest in reclaiming the spoils of Berlin and Potzdam, but the duke of Wellington, while he had nothing to recover for his own country, freely assisted those whose pretensions required the support of such paramount authority.

13. By the second general pacification of Paris with the allies, November 20th, 1,815, it was agreed that an army of occupation, amounting to 150,000 men, and to be maintained in a great measure by France, should for the space of five years be put in possession of her frontier fortresses, while her boundary should be farther reduced than on the former occasion; terms sufficiently mortifying, but justified by the turbulent and unsettled principles of the French nation. Though the period of five years, however, had been specifically

agreed to, the state of things afterwards appearing such as to justify the allies in departing from the exact letter of the treaty, in the spring of the year 1,817 they consented to reduce the army of occupation one fifth, and in the autumn of 1,818, it was wholly withdrawn from the French territories, and the fortresses on the frontier restored.

SECTION XXII.

NORTHERN STATES OF EUROPE, FROM THE CLOSE OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

1. Though much has been said of the northern courts in the preceding sections, as bearing a part in the transactions on the continent, during the last and present centuries, yet as they have not been mentioned distinctly and particularly, some brief account of them may be necessary, to give a clearer view of the course of events during the period under consideration.

2. Peter the great, of Russia, who died in 1,725, (see Sect. LXVI. § 2.) was succeeded by his widow, Catherine I., who survived him only two years. It is remarkable, that though Peter had taken particular care to secure to the reigning monarch a power of naming his successor, he should himself neglect this precaution; and for such an omission the law had made no provision. Catherine, however, had little or no difficulty to take his place. She was a woman, if not of a superior, yet of rather an extraordinary character; had attended Peter in his travels and campaigns; been serviceable to him in his greatest extremities; often checked the violence of his passions; and manifested a disposition, during her short reign, to encourage a spirit of liberty amongst her subjects, and to promote, in every way she could, the progress of improvement and civilization. Her death was little expected, and excited some suspicions against the prince Menzicoff, who had just negociated a treaty with Austria, and entered into a stipulation to raise the son of the unfortunate prince Alexis to the throne, upon the condition of his marrying his daughter.

3. The empress died in 1,727, and was succeeded by Peter II., grandson of Peter I. Menzicoff, however, seemed to take into his own hands the reins of government, till he was supplanted by one of the Dolgorouki family, and banished to Siberia, with his wife and children. The new favourite designed to marry his sister to the emperor; but on January 29, 1,730, Peter died of the small-pox. In him the male issue of the line becoming extinct, Anne, duchess of Courland, was called to the throne through the influence of Dolgorouki, contrary to the order of succession established by Peter I., and in prejudice of her elder sister, the duchess of Mecklenburg. They were both of them the daughters of Iwan, the eldest brother of Peter.

4. The reign of Anne was prosperous and glorious: she showed great sagacity and firmness in resisting the intrigues, and balancing the credit of rival statesmen, counsellors, and generals, Russian and foreign; maintaining her prerogatives against those who sought to invade them, to further their own ambition, particularly Dolgorouki, who, though he had placed her on the throne, was disgraced and banished to Siberia. Anne died in 1,740, leaving the crown, by her will, to her grand-nephew Iwan, son of her niece, Anne, princess of

Mecklenburg, married to the duke of Brunswick Bevern; but she appointed her favourite, count Biren, whom she had brought with her from Courland, regent.

5. This last arrangement threw things into the utmost confusion. Biren was deservedly no favourite with the Russians, more than 20,000 of whom he is said to have sent into banishment; he had, besides, a powerful rival in count Munich, the conqueror of Oczakow, a German, and a man of singular bravery and resolution; the latter succeeded in dispossessing the regent of his authority in favour of the mother of the emperor. Biren was sent to Siberia; and the princess of Mecklenburg (duchess of Brunswick) assumed the reins of government; but not attending sufficiently to the duties of her high station, and appearing to give too great encouragement to foreigners, a new revolution was set on foot, to place on the throne the youngest daughter of Peter the great, the princess Elizabeth. This party, supported by French gold, and headed by Lestocq, a physician, quickly becoming strong, seized upon the emperor Iwan and his parents, and proclaimed Elizabeth empress of all the Russias. The life of the infant Iwan was preserved by the clemency and express interposition of Elizabeth; but only to undergo a harder fate. (See below, § 8.) Munich was banished; and other foreign generals, who had favoured the former government, either shared the same destiny, or contrived to escape from the Russian dominions. The people were well pleased to see the throne rescued from the hands of foreigners in favour of so direct a claimant as the daughter of Peter the great. This revolution took place in the month of November, 1,741.

6. Russia flourished under the sway of Elizabeth, whose reign exhibited an uninterrupted career of glory and success; her alliance was courted by some of the greatest powers in Europe. Before her death, which happened in 1,762, she took care to restore the natural order of succession in her family, by declaring the duke of Holstein Gottorp, her heir, son of her eldest sister, and who became emperor, on her demise, by the title of Peter III.

7. This unfortunate prince was not suffered to reign long; he had married a princess of Anhalt-Zerbst; a woman of singular character, peculiarly fitted to avail herself of any opportunities that might offer in so unsettled a country, to gratify her ambition, and give scope to her abilities. The prince had not behaved well to her, and many things concurred to render him unpopular, if not hateful to his subjects; particularly an enthusiastic attachment to the king of Prussia, then at war with the Russians, and projected innovations, well-meant but ill-timed, some particularly affecting the clergy. He proposed to circumscribe the power of the nobles, and seemed to prefer the Holstein troops to his Russian guard. As these things rendered his removal probable, according to the ordinary course of proceedings in that semi-barbarous country, the sagacious Catherine willingly gave herself up to a party who had conspired against her husband. It is generally conjectured that she connived, not only at the deposition, but at the death of Peter, who survived his elevation to the imperial dignity not many months; while Catherine, by her superior address and intrepidity, not only succeeded in establishing herself upon the vacant throne, but in emancipating herself from the domination of the party to whom she stood indebted for it, (the Orloffs.)

8. One competitor still seemed to stand in her way,—the unfortunate Iwan,—who had been deposed by Elizabeth, and now languished

in confinement, at the age of twenty-four. Soon after Catherine's accession he was slain in prison, on a pretence of his attempting to escape, but under circumstances so mysterious as to involve the empress in suspicion. She reigned under the title of Catherine II. for the long space of upwards of thirty-four years, continually occupied in advancing the glory of her people, in augmenting her dominions, and rewarding merit. She obtained many signal advantages over the Turks, and succeeded (1,784) in wresting from them the whole district of the Crimea; but her designs extended much farther, even to the expulsion of the Ottomans, and restoration of a Grecian empire, having for its capital Athens or Constantinople: she contemplated, in short, the complete triumph of the Cross over the Crescent. An expedition was even undertaken for the liberation of the Greeks, in the year 1,770; but it proved ineffectual, though it might have been otherwise, had the Russian commanders consented to follow the advice of the Scotch admiral, Elphinstone, who commanded one of the divisions of the fleet.

9. Catherine bore a large share in the partition of Poland, and seems to have been restrained by no principles of justice, humanity, morality, or virtue, from furthering the purposes of her ambition and policy; her prodigality was great, her largesses enormous, and her love of magnificence little proportioned to the smallness of the imperial revenue: her abilities and her resolution were remarkable, and she may be considered as having contributed largely to the improvement and glory of the country over which she was permitted so long to bear unlimited rule. Her domestic regulations savoured little of the despotism displayed in her foreign enterprises: she mitigated the rigour of the penal laws, abolished torture and slavery, protected the arts and sciences, and endeavoured to elevate the middle class to a proper degree of importance.

10. Catherine II. was succeeded in 1,796 by her son Paul I., a strange character, unsettled in his principles, dissolute in his manners, jealous, vindictive, and, in his last days, scarcely in possession of his senses. On his first accession, however, he wisely endeavoured to provide against the evils arising from an unsettled inheritance, by enacting a law to secure the crown to his lineal and direct descendants, not absolutely excluding females, but admitting them only into the line of succession on a total failure of male heirs.

11. The emperor appeared to be extremely eager to secure an entrance into the Mediterranean, and was highly gratified with being chosen patron of the order of Malta, which he consented to take under his protection in the year 1,798. He had been induced to take a part in the war against the French, and succeeded, in conjunction with the Turks, in getting possession, for a short time, of the Ionian islands; a Russian army was also sent to co-operate with the Austrians, under the command of the celebrated Souwarow, (or Souvaroff,) who, after having achieved great victories in Lombardy, seems to have been cruelly abandoned in Swisserland, and to have unjustly incurred the displeasure of his capricious master. A misunderstanding between the English and Paul on the subject of Malta, entirely alienated the latter from the confederacy. In the mean while, his violent conduct had induced the great officers of state and the nobility to conspire to dethrone him. He was slain in defending himself, during a conflict, in his own chamber, March 24, 1,801; and, greatly to the joy of his oppressed people, succeeded by his son Alexander,

the present emperor, of whose accession, and share in the continental war, an account has already been given.

12. Prussia, as a kingdom, is not older than the eighteenth century, and entirely belongs therefore to the period under discussion. Its history, as connected with the electorate of Brandenburgh, ascends as high, perhaps, as that of any sovereignty in Europe. Its present power may be said to have taken its rise from the wisdom, judgment, and good sense of the elector Frederic-William, commonly called the great elector, who had Ducal Prussia confirmed to him in 1,657, and by the convention of Walau and Bromberg, rendered independent of the crown of Poland, of which, till then, it had been a fief. In the time of the great elector, advantage was taken of the unsettled state of Europe, to increase the population, and thereby advance the wealth and improvement of the country in every respect. The revocation of the edict of Nantes in France, 1,685, contributed largely to these ends, the Prussian states being freely set open to the refugees of all descriptions; an act of mere policy, as the elector himself, though tolerant, was extremely devout and careful of the privileges, and even exemptions of the clergy.

13. The elector, Frederic-William, died in 1,688, and was succeeded by his son Frederic, who, through the influence of the protestant states, and the good-will of the emperor Leopold, to whom he had been of service in his contest with France, but who seems to have taken such a step with little judgment or consideration, became king in 1,701, and died in 1,713, at the very period when, by the treaty of Utrecht, his regal title was confirmed and generally acknowledged by the other states of Europe. Frederic I. was generous, but fickle, superstitious, and vain; he founded the University of Hall, the Royal Society of Berlin, and the Academy of Nobles, but without taking much interest in their concerns, and chiefly at the instigation of his more learned consort, the princess Charlotte of Hanover; he managed, however, to augment, by many acquisitions, purchases, and exchanges, the extent of his dominions.

14. His successor, Frederic-William II., is judged to have done much more to raise the credit and character of his new kingdom, by excessive prudence, and good management, and the utmost attention to his army; whereby he not only repaired the losses occasioned by his father's extravagances, but amassed great treasures, and laid the foundations for those stupendous military achievements, which, in the next reign, advanced Prussia to that high state of glory and eminence which has given it such weight in the political scale of Europe. Frederic abolished, in 1,717, all the fiefs in his kingdom; he invited colonies from all parts to settle in his dominions. Like his great predecessor and namesake, he established military schools and hospitals, but he was no friend to literature; unpolished in his manners, and implacable in his resentment. He added to the dominions of Prussia, Stettin and the greater part of Swedish Pomerania.

15. On the death of Frederic-William II., in 1,740, his son, (who is sometimes called Frederic II., to distinguish him from the Frederic-Williams, and sometimes Frederic III.,) came to the throne. Of this monarch so much is known, and so much has already been noticed and recorded in the other sections of this work, that we have little to say here, but that he managed to raise a scattered, ill-sorted, disjointed kingdom into the first rank of power and renown; that he applied himself incessantly to promote the welfare and improvement

of his dominions, to augment the wealth and advance the civilization of his people, though, in many of his regulations and measures to this end, he erred occasionally as his predecessors had done, for want of a due knowledge of some of the first principles of political economy, a science at that period little cultivated. Frederic died August, 1,786, in the seventy-fifth year of his age, and forty-seventh of his reign, more admired than esteemed; more distinguished for bravery in the field, wisdom in the cabinet, and literary attainments, than for any virtues or qualities of a nobler nature. He has had the reputation of being the author of two very important measures, the partition of Poland, and the armed neutrality. The credit of the first may probably be very fairly divided between himself and Catherine of Russia; the second, as a matter of self-defence, and a jealous regard for the liberty of the seas, reflects no dishonour on his character. It is a point that should be better settled than it seems to be, by the strict rules of international and maritime law.

16. Frederic was succeeded by his nephew Frederic-William. Of the part taken by this monarch in support of the house of Orange, in 1,787, of his opposition to the French, in 1,792, and of the share he had in the two last partitions of Poland, in 1,793 and 1,795, by which he gained the territories, first of South Prussia, and, secondly of South-eastern Prussia, an account has been given elsewhere. Frederic-William II. died in 1,797, aged fifty-three, leaving the crown to his son, the present king, Frederic III., who, as he came to the throne at the moment that Buonaparte began his extraordinary career, in disturbance of the peace of the continent, was necessarily involved in all the difficulties and confusion of those times, as has been already shown: he joined the armed neutrality in 1,800, caused Hamburgh to be shut against the English, and occupied the states of Hanover, 1,801, which being annexed by France to Prussia, in 1,805, in exchange for a part of the duchy of Cleves, Anspach, Bareuth, Neufchatel, and Valengin, provoked the resentment of England and Sweden. In 1,806, the king rashly engaged in war with France, and was nearly deprived of his kingdom: the losses he sustained by the treaty of Tilsit, have been mentioned. (Sect. XVI.) In 1,812, Frederic was compelled by France to furnish an auxiliary force against Russia, but was afterwards, on the retreat of the French from Moscow, able to break through this engagement, and conclude a treaty of neutrality with Russia. From this time to the abdication of Napoleon, Prussia acted in close confederacy with the allies, the king being constantly with his army till their entrance into Paris, March, 1,814. On the return of Buonaparte, 1,815, the Prussians were the first to take the field, under their celebrated general, prince Blucher, and in the battle of Waterloo, reaped the splendid glories of that day in conjunction with the British. Since that time, Prussia has enjoyed a state of peace, though not undisturbed as to her internal concerns.

17. The crown of Sweden, on the demise of Charles XII., 1,718, (see Sect. LXVI. § 9. Part II.) was conferred on his youngest sister, Ulrica Eleanora, by the free election of the states. On the death of Charles, whose strange proceedings had greatly exhausted the kingdom, and occasioned the actual loss of many provinces, an opportunity was taken, once more, to limit the kingly power, which had been rendered almost absolute in the reign of Charles XI., and to make the crown elective. The new queen, who was married to the hereditary prince of Hesse Cassel, and who had been offered the crown in prejudice of the son and representative of her elder sister, the

duchess of Holstein Gottorp, readily submitted to the conditions proposed by the states for limiting the royal authority, but soon after her accession resigned the government to her royal consort, who was crowned by the title of Frederic I., 1,720.

18. The new king ruled the nation with little dignity and less spirit: submitting to every thing imposed on him by the states, till the government became more republican than monarchical. The Swedish territories were also much reduced during the early part of his reign. In the course of the years 1,719, 1,720, 1,721, Sweden ceded to Hanover, Bremen, and Verden; to Prussia, the town of Stettin; and to Russia, Livonia, Esthonia, Ingria, Wiburg, a part of Carelia, and several islands.

19. It was during this reign that the rival factions of the *Hats* and *Caps* had their origin, and which caused great troubles; the former being generally under the influence of France, the latter of Russia. To deter the latter from assisting the queen of Hungary, in the war that took place on the death of Charles VI., France made use of its influence with the *Hats*, to involve Sweden in hostilities with Russia, for which she was ill-prepared, and from which she suffered considerably. Her losses were restored to her in some measure by the peace of Abo, 1,743, but upon the positive condition that Frederic should adopt as his heir and successor, at the instance of the czarina, Adolphus-Frederic, bishop of Lubec, uncle to the duke of Holstein Gottorp, presumptive heir to the throne of Russia, and nephew to the queen of Sweden, who would more willingly have had the latter for her successor.

20. Adolphus-Frederic came to the crown in 1,751. The same factions which had disturbed the former reign continued to give him trouble, and though he made some endeavours to get the better of foreign influence, and recover his lost authority, all his efforts were vain. Nothing could exceed the anarchy and confusion that prevailed, encouraged and fomented both by Russia and France, to further their private ends. The king is supposed to have fallen a sacrifice to these disturbances, dying wholly disputed in the year 1,771.

21. He was succeeded by his eldest son Gustavus III., twenty-five years old at the time of his accession: a Swede by birth, and an active and spirited prince, who was bent upon recovering what his predecessors had too tamely surrendered of their rights and prerogatives; in which, being supported by France, he had the good fortune to succeed. Having found means to conciliate the army, and to reconcile the people to an attack upon the aristocrats, who were betraying the interests of the country, he established a new constitution, 1,772, with such good management and address, that the public tranquillity was scarcely for a moment disturbed. This new arrangement threw great power into the hands of the king, by leaving him the option of convening and dissolving the states, with the entire disposal of the army, navy, and all public appointments, civil, military, and ecclesiastical; some alterations were made in 1,789, but nothing could reconcile the party whom he had superseded; at least it is probable that this was the occasion of the catastrophe which terminated the life of the unfortunate monarch. Towards the commencement of the French revolution, in the year 1,792, when he was preparing to assist Lewis XVI., (an unpopular undertaking,) he was assassinated at a masquerade by a person encouraged, if not directly employed, by the discontented party of 1,772.

22. Gustavus III. was brave, polite, well-informed, and of a ready

eloquence; but profligate in his habits of life, and careless as to matters of religion. He promoted letters, agriculture, and commerce, as far as his means would enable him to do so. His measures appear to have been more arbitrary than his disposition.

23. His son Gustavus IV. being only fourteen years old at the time of his father's death, the duke of Sudermania, brother of the deceased king, became regent for a short time. No monarch in Europe manifested a greater zeal in the cause of the French royal family, or disgust at the arbitrary proceedings of Buonaparte, than Gustavus IV., but he was little able to give effect to his wishes; his judgment being weak, and his forces inadequate to contend with the French, especially after the latter, by the treaty of Tilsit, (see Sect. XVI.) had found means to detach and conciliate the emperor Alexander. After this disastrous treaty, Gustavus became not only the object of French resentment, but of Russian rapacity. He was peremptorily forbidden to admit the English into his ports, and Finland was quickly wrested from him. The Danes also attacked him. In this dilemma, England would have assisted him if she could have trusted him, but, in truth, his rashness and incapacity were become too apparent to justify any such confidence. A revolution was almost necessary, nor was it long before a conspiracy was formed, which, in the year 1,809, succeeded so far as to induce him to abdicate. His uncle, the duke of Sudermania, being appointed protector, and very soon afterwards king, by the title of Charles XIII., the states carrying their resentment against Gustavus IV. so far, as to exclude his posterity also from the throne.

24. Charles XIII. submitted to new restrictions on the kingly authority, and having no issue, left it to the nation to nominate an heir to the crown. Their first choice fell upon the prince of Augustenburg, a Danish subject, but his death happening soon afterwards, not without suspicion of foul play, Bernadotte, one of Buonaparte's generals, was, in a very extraordinary manner, nominated in his room by the king, and approved by the states. As crown prince of Sweden, tempted by the offer of Norway, he joined the confederacy against Buonaparte in 1,813, and was present at the battle of Leipzig. (See Sect. XX.) On the death of Charles XIII., 1,818, he succeeded to the crown, and still reigns, having, by the treaty of Vienna, 1,815, obtained Norway, and the island of Guadaloupe.

25. The history of DENMARK during the eighteenth century, and beginning of the nineteenth, is very uninteresting, in a political point of view. Incapable of taking any leading or conspicuous part in the affairs of Europe, all that we know concerning her relates rather to other countries, as Russia, Sweden, Prussia, France, and England; in whose friendships and hostilities she has been compelled, by circumstances, to take a part, little advantageous, if not entirely detrimental, to her own interests.

26. Five kings have occupied the throne since the close of the seventeenth century, but it will be necessary to say very little of them. Frederic IV., who came to the crown in 1,699, died in 1,730, and was succeeded by Christian VI.; a monarch who paid great attention to the welfare of his subjects, in lightening the taxes, and encouraging trade and manufactures. He reigned sixteen years, and was succeeded by his son Frederic V., in the year 1,746. Frederic trod in the footsteps of his father, by promoting knowledge, encouraging the manufactures, and extending the commerce of his country. He had nearly been embroiled with Russia during the six months'

reign of the unfortunate Peter III., who, the moment he became emperor, resolved to revenge on the court of Denmark the injuries which had been committed on his ancestors of the house of Holstein Gottorp. In these attempts he was to be assisted by the king of Prussia. The king of Denmark prepared to resist the attacks with which he was threatened, but the deposition and death of the emperor fortunately relieved him from all apprehensions, and he was able to compromise matters with Catherine II., by a treaty that was not to take effect till the grand duke Paul came of age. By this convention, the empress ceded to Denmark, in the name of her son, the duchy of Sleswick, and so much of Holstein as appertained to the Gottorp branch of that family, in exchange for the provinces of Oldenburg and Dalmenhorst.

27. Frederic V. died in 1,766, and was succeeded by his son Christian VII., who, in 1,768, married the princess Caroline Matilda of England, sister to his majesty king George III. The principal event in this reign was one which involved the unhappy queen in inextricable difficulties, and probably hastened her death; but which seems still to be enveloped in considerable mystery. A German physician of the court, (Struensee,) who had risen from rather a low station in life to be first minister, having rendered himself extremely obnoxious by a most extensive reform in all the public offices of state, civil and military, and which, had they succeeded, might have done him great credit as a statesman, was accused of intriguing with the young queen, and by the violence of his enemies, headed and encouraged by Juliana Maria, the queen-dowager, and her son prince Frederic, brought most ignominiously to the scaffold. The unfortunate queen Caroline, whose life was probably saved only by the spirited interposition of the British minister, quitted Denmark after the execution of Struensee and his coadjutor Brandt, and having retired to Zell in Germany, painfully separated from her children, there ended her days, May 10, 1,775, in the twenty-fourth year of her age.

28. During the latter part of his life, Christian VII., whose understanding had always been weak, fell into a state of mental derangement, and the government was carried on by the queen-dowager and prince Frederic, as co-regents, with the aid of Bernstoff, an able and patriotic minister. In 1,773, the cession of Ducal Holstein to Denmark by Russia took place, according to the treaty above spoken of: this was a very important acquisition, as giving her the command of the whole Cimbrian peninsula, and enabling her, by forming a canal from Kiel, to connect the Baltic with the German ocean. In the continental wars of 1,788, 1793, Denmark remained neuter, but by joining the armed neutrality in 1,800, she excited the suspicions and resentment of Great Britain, and, being supposed to favour not only Russia but France, became involved in a contest, which was attended with losses and vexations the most melancholy and deplorable. (See Sect. XX. § 9.)

29. Christian VII. died in 1,788, and was succeeded by his son Frederic VI., the present monarch, who had, a few years before, on entering the seventeenth year of his age, been admitted to his proper share in the government, having with singular moderation and prudence succeeded in taking the administration of affairs out of the hands of the queen-dowager and her party. Denmark appears to have suffered greatly from the peculiarity of her situation during the struggles arising out of the French revolution, being continually forced into alliances contrary to her own interests, and made at last to

contribute more largely than almost any state, to the establishment of peace. The cession of Norway to Sweden, which had been held out by the allies as a boon to the latter power, to induce her to join the last confederacy against France, being a severe loss to Denmark, and very ill requited by the transfer of Pomerania and the Isle of Rugen, which were all that she received in exchange.

SECTION XXIII.

SOUTHERN STATES OF EUROPE, FROM THE CLOSE OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

1. The southern states of Europe underwent such extraordinary revolutions during the preponderance of the French under Buonaparte, that what happened to them during the eighteenth century, previously to these surprising events, seems comparatively of very little consequence: of the changes and disturbances to which they were subject through the interference of the French, an account is to be found in the sections relating to France.

2. Switzerland at the beginning of the eighteenth century was involved in disputes between the protestants and catholics, which were attended with very unpleasant circumstances. These differences, however, were brought to an end by a convention in 1,717, which established an equality of religious rights. Things remained very quiet in most of the cantons from this time to the French revolution, with the exception of the towns of Geneva and Berne, and a few other places, where a disposition was manifested to limit and restrain the aristocratical governments, but which only led at that time to such judicious reforms, as were sufficient to appease the ardour of the people. These disputes, however, may be held to have contributed to the evils which befel the country afterwards. Though the states endeavoured to preserve their neutrality during the progress of the French revolution, it was not possible, while revolutionary principles were afloat, to keep the country so free from internal disputes and commotions, or so united, as to deter the French from interfering. Geneva had already been cajoled out of her independence, but the first decisive occasion afforded to the French of taking an active part in the affairs of Swisserland, arose out of the disputes, in 1,798, relative to the Pays de Vaud; the gentry and citizens of which, not thinking themselves sufficiently favoured by the rulers of Berne and Fribourg, began to be clamorous for a change. The peasantry of Basle also, instigated by an emissary of the French directory, demanded a new constitution. These disputes opened the way for the introduction of French troops, first under the orders of the directory, and afterwards under Buonaparte, as has been shown in our account of France; and from that period to the conclusion of the war in 1,815, Switzerland can scarcely be said to have known a year of repose.

3. Of the condition of Venice during the eighteenth century, much may be collected from the foregoing sections. She lost the Morea in 1,718, but acquired in exchange some towns in Albania and Dalmatia. Some ecclesiastical reforms took place in the middle of the last century, at which period many convents were suppressed, and the Jesuits expelled. Venice endeavoured to remain neuter during the first

movements of the French revolution, but was soon drawn into the vortex when Buonaparte assumed the command of the French army. By the treaty of Campo Formio, 1,797, (see Sect. XV.) her doom was sealed, and this celebrated republic entirely overthrown.

4. In Rome, since the close of the eighteenth century, there has been a succession of many popes, though the last two have filled the papal chair longer than might be expected, in a sovereignty where the election is generally made from persons advanced in years. Little more than the "*magni nominis umbra*" remained to the popes at the beginning of the eighteenth century, of that temporal power which at one time or other had shaken every throne in Europe. The clergy of France in particular had effectually asserted that kings and princes, in temporal concerns, were independent of the ecclesiastical authority. Clement XI., who was of the family of the Albani, and assumed the tiara in the year 1,700, opposed the erection of Prussia into a kingdom; an extraordinary measure of interposition, and which had so little weight as almost to expose his court to ridicule. He espoused the French interests in the contest concerning the Spanish succession, though in 1,708 he was compelled, by the vigorous proceedings of the emperor, to acknowledge Charles III. king of Spain. From this pope the famous bull *unigenitus* was extorted by the Jesuits, to the great disturbance of France, and the whole Romish church; and the consequences of which, indeed, may be traced even in the present state and circumstances of Europe.

5. Pope Clement XI. died in 1,721, and was succeeded by the cardinal Michael Angelo Conti, who took the name of Innocent XIII., but being far advanced in years, lived a very short time, dying on the 3d of March, 1,724, and on the 29th of May following, cardinal Ursini, Benedict XIII., was chosen his successor. During his papacy, Commachio, which had been lost to the Roman see in the time of Clement XI., was recovered; Benedict was zealous for the honour of the bull unigenitus, and in conjunction with cardinal Fleury, succeeded in procuring the cardinal de Noailles, one of the most respectable and zealous opposers of it in France, to subscribe it. He had a disposition to unite the Roman, Greek, Lutheran, and reformed churches, but could not succeed. He died 1,730, more admired for his virtues and talents, than praised for his wisdom in the management of affairs.

6. Benedict XIII. was succeeded by Clement XII., Laurence Corsini, a Florentine, whose public acts were of little importance. He had disputes with the king of Sardinia, the republic of Venice, with the empire and Spain; but much of his pontificate was passed in tranquillity. He died on the 6th of February, 1,740. He made considerable and valuable additions to the Vatican library. On his death, a struggle arose between the Albani and Corsini families, and the conclave was much agitated. The former prevailed, and succeeded in elevating cardinal Prosper Lambertini to the papal chair, who took the title of Benedict XIV. His government of the church was extremely mild, and he was regarded as no favourer of the Jesuits, who, during his pontificate, fell into disrepute in Portugal, the first symptom of their decline and fall. This pope was a man of most amiable manners, a great writer, and possessed of considerable learning. He corrected several abuses, particularly such as had arisen out of the privileges of asylum. He carefully endeavoured to keep clear of disputes and contests, thinking the times unfavourable to the papal authority. He died in the year 1,758.

7. The cardinal Rezzonico succeeded Benedict XIV., and took the

title of Clement XIII. His pontificate is memorable for being the æra of the expulsion of the order of Jesuits, (in some instances under circumstances of very unjustifiable precipitation,) from Portugal, France, Spain, Naples, Sicily, Parma, Venice, and Corsica, notwithstanding the utmost efforts of the pope to uphold them; many of them were actually landed from Spain, Portugal, Naples, and Sicily, on the pope's territories, as though it belonged to him to maintain them when abandoned by the catholic sovereigns. The pope remonstrated, but with little effect. The French seized upon Avignon, and the Neapolitans upon Benevento, to induce him to abandon the order, but he would not. Clement XIII. died suddenly, on February 2, 1,769, and was succeeded by the celebrated Ganganelli, who, in compliment to his predecessor and patron, took the title of Clement XIV. This enlightened pontiff was sensible of the decline of the papal authority, and of the prudence of conciliating, if not of humouring, the sovereigns of Europe, against whom, he was accustomed to observe, the Alps and the Pyrenees were not sufficient protection. It was in consequence of this leaning towards the temporal princes, that he secured their concurrence to his being made pope, his freedom of thought and manners being otherwise obnoxious to the court of Rome. The conclave, by which he was elected, was tumultuous; but at length the cardinal de Bernis succeeded in procuring him to be chosen pope, May, 1,769. It is well known that this accomplished pontiff, in the year 1,773, after much deliberation, suppressed the order of Jesuits; and, dying in the next year, suspicions were raised that he had been poisoned, but, on opening his body, in the presence of the French and Spanish ministers, enemies to the Jesuits, it was pronounced otherwise. There is little doubt but that he regretted, as head of the church, the step he had been compelled to take; it procured for him, indeed, the restitution of Avignon and Benevento, which had been taken from his predecessor; but in consenting to the dissolution of an order so essential to the papal dominion, he must, in all probability, have yielded to the power of irresistible circumstances. He was of an amiable disposition, much given to literature, indefatigable in business, and highly respected by foreign nations, plain and simple in his manners, and very disinterested.

§ 8. Early in the year 1,775, Angiolo Braschi, a descendant of the noble family of Cesena, was chosen to fill the chair vacated by the death of Ganganelli. The new pope took the title of Pius VI. He is said to have been elected contrary to the wishes and intentions of most of the members of the conclave, a circumstance not unlikely to happen amidst such a contrariety of interests, and the complicated forms of proceeding. As he had thus risen to supreme power, he acted afterwards more independently of the cardinals, than any of his predecessors.

9. He had taken the name of Pius VI., in acknowledged defiance of a prevailing superstition, expressed in the following verses, and applied to Alexander VI. particularly, if not to others.

> "Sextus Tarquinius, Sextus Nero, sextus et iste
> Semper sub sextis, perdita Roma fuit."

He is known to have, in his troubles, reflected on this rather singular circumstance, with sorrow and dismay. Certainly no pope had greater indignities to sustain, nor could any have greater cause to

apply to themselves the ominous presages conveyed in the lines just cited; for in the year 1,798 his government was overthrown, and Rome lost. The French took possession of it and proclaimed the restoration of the Roman republic.

10. The pope's troubles began in 1,796, when he was compelled to cede to Buonaparte the cities of Bologna, Urbino, Ferrara, and Ancona, to pay twenty-one millions of francs, and deliver to the French commissioners, sent for the purposes, pictures, busts, statues, and vases, to a large amount. He afterwards endeavoured to raise an army to recover what he had lost; but he had formed a very wrong estimate of the power of his opponent. He was soon compelled, February 12, 1,797, to sue for peace, and submit to further sacrifices at the will of Buonaparte, whom he had certainly very incautiously provoked. By the peace of Tolentino, he renounced all right to Avignon and the Venaissin, Bologna, Ferrara, and the Romagna. On the entrance of the French in 1,798, the Vatican and Quirinal palaces, and private mansions of the obnoxious amongst the nobility, were stripped of all their ornaments and riches. The people who had invited the French, fancied themselves free, but had very little cause to thank their deliverers. The pope was forcibly removed from Rome, at the age of eighty, and, by order of the French directory, transferred from place to place, as the course of events dictated, from Rome to Florence, from Florence to Briancon, and from Briancon to Valence. Another removal to Dijon is said to have been in contemplation, had not the decline of his health become too visible to render it necessary. He died at the latter place on the 29th of August, 1,799, in the eighty-second year of his age, and twenty-fourth of his pontificate.

11. Pius VI. was correct in his manners, and a patron of genius, particularly of the fine arts. He spent much money on buildings, notwithstanding the distressed state of the finances, and devoted large sums to the draining of the Pontine marshes, in which almost impracticable undertaking, he partly succeeded. He endeavoured to correct the abuses of sanctuary, which had been carried so far as to give impunity to hired assassins, much to the disgrace of those who protected them. It deserves to be recorded of him, that he displayed great magnanimity, as well as pious resignation, when dragged from his dominions; and though he felt severely the wrongs that had been committed against him by the French and the infatuated Romans, he died tranquilly and serenely.

12. It is remarkable that he had scarcely been dead a month, when Rome was delivered from the hands of its oppressors, and given up to the British, whose fleet, under commodore Trowbridge, had blocked up the port of Civita Vecchia. Those who had favoured the republican cause were permitted to retire, and the French garrison marched out with the honours of war.

13. In the month of March, 1,800, a conclave of cardinals, under the protection of the emperor and other catholic powers, met at Venice to elect a successor to Pius VI., and was not long in fixing upon the cardinal Chiaremonte, bishop of Tivoli, the present pope Pius VII. In a few weeks after his election, he set out for his new dominions, and arrived at Rome on the 9th of July. In the month of September, 1,801, he had the satisfaction of concluding a *concordatum* with the French republic, by which, under the auspices of Buonaparte, then first consul, the Roman catholic religion was re-established there. Not only heresy, but infidelity and atheism, had

been so openly encouraged and avowed by the French revolutionists, that Pius appears to have thought no concessions too great to accomplish this end; for the terms of the agreement undoubtedly subjected the Gallican church entirely to the civil government, canonical institution being almost the only privilege reserved to the pope, and every possible encouragement being, at the same time, given to the protestant churches, Lutheran and Calvinistic.

13. It was very soon discovered, that the new head of the Roman church, was to be made to bow as low to the authority of Buonaparte as his predecessor. In 1,804 Pius VII. was summoned to Paris to officiate at the coronation of the French emperor; and though in the year following he declined attending a similar ceremony at Milan, as has been already shown, it seems only to have exposed him to greater sacrifices. In 1,808 he was deprived of Urbino, Ancona, Macerata, and Camerino, and soon after his temporal sovereignty was formally dissolved, and the papal territories annexed to France. Rome was declared to be a free and imperial city; the court of inquisition, the temporal jurisdiction of the clergy, the right of asylum, and other privileges were abolished, and the title of king of Rome appropriated to the heir of the French empire. Pius was conveyed first to Grenoble, afterwards to Savona, and finally, in 1,812, to Fontainebleau, where, for reasons unknown, he was once more acknowledged as a sovereign, till the advance of the allies upon Paris, at last, procured him his liberty; and in 1,814 he was reinstated: he made his solemn entrance into Rome on the 24th of May; and in 1,815, by the arrangements of the congress of Vienna, his forfeited estates were re-annexed to the papal dominions. His restoration of the order of Jesuits and of the court of inquisition, on his return, occasioned some concern to the greater part of Europe; but his holiness has generally had the credit of being a man of sense, prudence, and moderation.

SECTION XXIV.

OF INDIA, OR HINDOOSTAN.

1. India or Hindoostan having largely engaged the attention of Europe since the close of the seventeenth century, may deserve some distinct notice, though little is to be added to what has already been related in former sections, of the political events and transactions which have occurred in that remote region of the globe, during the period alluded to.

2. The celebrated Aurungzebe, who occupied the throne of Delhi, at the commencement of the eighteenth century, lived to the year 1,707. In him the spirit of the great Timur, from whom he was the eleventh in descent, seemed to revive. He was brave, but cruel. He attained to a great age, being nearly a hundred years old when he died, having succeeded in rendering almost the whole of the peninsula subject to his sway, from the tenth to the thirty-fifth degree of latitude, and nearly as much in longitude.

3. But if Aurungzebe thus raised in his own person the credit of the mogul throne, its glory also perished with him. A sad scene of confusion ensued upon his death. He had himself, indeed, waded to the throne through the blood of his own kindred. After deposing his father, two of his brothers were slain in contending for the crown.

But such was the nature, generally, of the political revolutions of those countries, that had not this been the case, the life of Aurungzebe himself might probably have been sacrificed to similar views and purposes. He is said to have bitterly repented of his misdoings before he died.

4. No sooner, however, was he dead, than the most violent contests arose between his own sons, two of whom, Azem and Kaum Buksh, perished in their opposition to their elder brother, who became emperor, under the title of Bahader Shah. The throne, indeed, was such an object of contention, that, in the small space of eleven years, five princes, who attained to the throne, and six, who were candidates for it, successively fell victims to the lusts and passions of their semi-barbarous competitors. It was in the reign of Feroksere, who was deposed in 1,717, that the English East India Company obtained the famous firman or grant, by which their goods of export and import were exempted from duties, and which has been regarded as their commercial charter in India; no other European companies being similarly indulged.

5. In the time of Mahmud or Muhammed Shah, who came to the throne in the year 1,718, and who was engaged in disputes with some of his most powerful neighbours and dependents, the celebrated usurper of the Persian throne, Nadir Shah, encouraged, or even invited, as it has been said, by some of the discontented princes, particularly the subahdar of the Deckan, invaded the dominions of the Mogul, and with such success, as in the year 1,739, to seize upon Delhi, the capital, with all its treasures, and compel the unhappy sultan, to surrender, with the utmost ignominy, his crown and sceptre. He was, indeed, afterwards restored, but with the loss of all his dominions west of the Indus, together with jewels and treasures to an incalculable amount; some indiscreet insult, offered to the Persians, having been the alleged provocation for delivering the city up to plunder, and the inhabitants to the sword, with every cruelty and indignity attendant upon such misfortunes. This miserable capital afterwards underwent a second visitation of the same description, from one of the followers of Nadir Shah, Abdallah, who had, indeed, been forced into his service, but found means to take advantage of his master's victories, by seizing upon the territories west of the Indus, ceded to Nadir by the unfortunate mogul, and erecting a sovereignty for himself at Candahar. Nadir Shah was assassinated in his tent, in 1,747.

6. By the invasion of the Persians, the power and glory of the moguls may be said to have been brought to an end. From that period the subordinate states, princes, and viceroys, began to aspire to a degree of independence, and to acquire a consequence before unknown; the mogul himself becoming a mere nominal sovereign. Those who were most raised at this time by the depression of the sultanic authority, appear to have been—

The Nizam or Subahdar, of the Deckan; the Nabot of Arcot, or the Carnatic; the Subahdar of Bengal; the Nabob of Oude; the Rajahpoote Princes of Agimere; the Mahrattas; the Seiks; the Rohillas, and the Jats.

The disputes and differences that took place between these several powers, after they had shaken off the yoke of the mogul, opened the door for the interference of the European settlers, towards the middle of the eighteenth century. (See Sect. VI. § 2.) The French first, and afterwards the English, contrived to take advantage of the

rival claims set up by the different native powers, and by rendering them assistance against each other, and it is to be feared greatly fomenting their quarrels, soon became acquainted with the manifest superiority of their own tactics, and the influence this must give them in such contests. The French went farther, and first hit upon the expedient of training the natives in the European manner, and incorporating them with their own armies; these were called Sepoys.

7. It was not long before the French and English, who had at first only taken the field as auxiliaries, became opposed to each other as principals; in which conflicts the English succeeded beyond all expectation, and instead of being driven out of the peninsula themselves, which was evidently in the view of the French under Dupleix, in the year 1,751 and 1,752, found means to establish themselves there, through the victories of Clive, to the exclusion of all other European nations, except for purposes purely commercial.

8. Clive has justly been regarded as the founder of the British empire in India; he was the first to procure for the company grants of territory and assignments of revenue, which totally changed the character of our connexions with that country, and rendered the native princes, even the mogul himself, subservient to our purposes. The English had received great provocation from the subahdar of Bengal, in an attack upon Calcutta, and Clive was selected by admiral Watson to recover from Sourajud Dowlah the town and fort, which had been surrendered to him. At the battle of Plassey, 1,757, he not only succeeded in the recovery of Calcutta, but in the deposition of the subahdar, and having appointed his general in his room, obtained a grant of all the effects and factories of the French in Bengal, Bahar, and Orissa, and money contributions to the immense amount of £2,750,000 sterling, exclusive of private gratuities.

9. It would have been well if these advantages could have been acquired with less loss of credit to the nation than was actually the case; but there was too much in these first steps towards a territorial establishment, to feed the ambition and cupidity of those intrusted with the management of affairs, to render it probable that they would keep clear of abuses. The opportunities that occurred of intermeddling with the native powers, were eagerly seized upon as occasions for enriching the servants of the company, (drawn from home in expectation of making rapid fortunes,) at the expense of the company itself, whose affairs were in danger, not only of becoming more embarrassed by the extraordinary expenses of such interference, but by the alienation of the minds of the natives, under circumstances little short of the most determined plunder and persecution. In the management of the new-acquired territories and inland trade, it is no longer to be doubted that the natives suffered in every possible manner, from the most unreasonable monopolies, exorbitant duties imposed on articles of general consumption, abuses in regard to leases, and fiscal oppressions; so that the British name became dishonoured, and it was found to be absolutely expedient that some change should take place in the administration of affairs so remote from the seat of all rule and direction, and which, from simply commercial, were now clearly become political and military.

10. The charter of the company being subject to periodical renewals, afforded opportunities for the interference of the legislature, nor was the company itself backward, under any pressure of pecuniary embarrassments, to apply to government for assistance. On one of these occasions, the great change that had taken place in the

state of things in India, induced the government at home to claim for the crown all revenues arising from any new acquisitions made by military force, and in order to repress the inordinate proceedings of the company's servants, of which the natives, the public at home, and the company itself, had but too much reason to complain, government also insisted upon taking into its own hands the political jurisdiction of India.

11. These claims and regulations were first proposed in parliament, November, 1,772, and may be said to have laid the foundation for that enlarged system of administration and control which has prevailed since, though under different modifications, from lord North's bill in 1,773 to Mr. Pitt's in 1,784. By this latter bill, a board of control, composed of certain commissioners of the rank of privy counsellors, was established, the members of which were to be appointed by the king, and removable at his pleasure. This board was authorized to check, superintend, and control the civil and military government and revenue of the company; a high tribunal also, for the trial of Indian delinquents, was proposed at the same time. The management of their commercial concerns was left in the hands of the company; the political and civil authority only transferred to the crown. In 1,786, some alterations were made in the bill; the offices of commander-in-chief and governor-general were for the future to be united in the same person, and a power given to the governor-general to decide in opposition to the majority of the council. The presidencies of Madras and Bombay had been previously, by lord North's bill, placed under the superintendency of the governor and council of Bengal, but by this bill that point also was confirmed.

12. When this bill was passed, it appeared from the preamble, to be decidedly the opinion of parliament, of government, as well as of the court of directors, whose orders had for some time breathed the same spirit, that "to pursue schemes of conquest and extension of dominion in India, were measures repugnant to the wish, the honour, and the policy of the nation." It had previously been resolved by the house, "that the maintenance of an inviolable character for moderation, good faith, and scrupulous regard to treaty, ought to have been the simple grounds on which the British government should have endeavoured to establish an influence superior to other Europeans, over the minds of the native powers in India; and that the danger and discredit arising from the forfeiture of this pre-eminence, could not be compensated by the temporary success of any plan of violence and injustice."

13. Such was the tenor of the resolutions of the house of commons in 1,782, recognised as the principle of the bill of 1,784, and farther confirmed by an act passed in 1,793. In all we perceive an evident allusion to those mal-practices of the company's servants, which will for ever, it is to be feared, remain on record, to tarnish the lustre of our first victories and territorial acquisitions in India, and to detract from the reputation of persons, whose names might otherwise have justly stood high on the list of those, from whose pre-eminent talents and abilities, the nation has derived both glory and advantage.

14. The English system of jurisprudence had been extended to India by lord North's bill of 1,773, but under disadvantages extremely embarrassing. The difference of manners, habits, customs; the difficulty, if not impossibility, of mingling two codes, so very dissimilar as those of Britain and Hindoostan; the forms and technicalities of the English law, totally unknown to the native courts; the ap-

parent injustice of subjecting a people to laws to which they were no parties, and to which, of course, they had given no sanction: these, and other difficulties have been acknowledged by those who have had to administer the laws under the new system, in India, as having prevented those happy effects taking place, which might otherwise have been expected from the introduction of the English jurisprudence. Since the passing of Mr. Pitt's bill, however, much benefit has certainly been derived from the residence and superintendence of noblemen of the highest rank and abilities, as governors-general, and of judges the most enlightened, to preside in the Indian courts. The first reforms that were attempted under the new system, though not so successful as might be wished, proceeded from those two most amiable and highly respected personages, the marquis Cornwallis, and sir William Jones.

15. From the conduct of lord Cornwallis, and his successors lord Teignmouth, and lord Mornington, now marquis Wellesley, it is extremely evident that the system of neutrality and forbearance prescribed by the resolutions of parliament, and preamble of the act of 1,784, would have been scrupulously adhered to had it been possible, consistently with the security of our settlements; but towards the close of the eighteenth century, the English were compelled to defend themselves from the most formidable designs of the celebrated Hyder-Ally and his son Tippoo Saib, who unquestionably had it in view to exterminate the British, and probably all other Europeans, from the peninsula of India.

16. The result of these conflicts, which took place in Mysore, and the Carnatic, was the total overthrow of a Mahomedan dynasty of only two sovereigns, commencing with a mere adventurer of most singular character, who having waded through crimes to his object, succeeded in placing himself and his son on one of the most brilliant thrones of the east, and in a condition to give very considerable trouble to the English government there.

17. Hyder Ally, the father of Tippoo, was born in 1,722, and died in 1,782. Tippoo was born in 1,753, and lost his life in the celebrated assault of the capital of his new dominions, Seringapatam, in 1,799. They were very different men, having been differently educated. The former had strong natural powers, which compensated for his want of acquired knowledge; the latter was vain of his scanty proficiency in Persian literature, and a few other attainments, to a degree of absurdity; fancying himself the greatest philosopher of the age, the wisest, bravest, and handsomest of men. Hyder was tolerant in religious concerns to a degree of indifference; Tippoo, a bigoted mussulman, to the utmost pitch of intolerance and persecution. The former meddled little with religion. The latter contemplated changes in Islamism, as in every thing else, having, as a preliminary, substituted a new era in his coins, dating from the birth instead of the flight of Mahomet. Both father and son were devoid of principle, but the former was much the greatest man.

18. It was owing to the vigilance and prompt measures of lord Wellesley, that Tippoo was so opportunely overthrown; though his proceedings were weak, they were carried on with much duplicity and deceit, and upon principles of alliance which in other circumstances might have become very alarming. Under the most positive and repeated assurances of peace and amity, he had intrigued with France, Turkey, the king of Candahar, (a descendant of the celebrated Affghan chief Abdallah,) the Nizam of the Deckan, and the

Mahrattas, for the express object of forming a strong confederacy to extirpate the English; in his negotiations with the courts of Candahar and Constantinople, indeed, he had declared vengeance against the infidels generally, whence it has been reasonably concluded that his schemes of destruction embraced all the European powers, the French not excepted, had his projects but been successful. Fortunately, lord Wellesley detected all his plots, and when it became impossible to treat farther with him on any fair grounds, by the most decisive measures, and rapid movements, effectually averted the blow that had been decidedly aimed at the British empire in India.

19. On the fall of Seringapatam, the Mysorean dominions were, by allotments to the allies, the British, the Nizam, and the Mahrattas, nearly reduced to the limits by which they were bounded before the usurpation of Hyder, and, a surviving representative of the Hindoo dynasty, a child only five years old, placed on the throne, with an acknowledged dependency on the British government. The descendants of Tippoo being, however, liberally provided for, and settled in the Carnatic, disturbances in the northern and north-western parts of the peninsula, among the Mahratta chieftains, occupied the attention of the English army, in the early part of the present century, when a fresh opportunity was afforded of triumphing over the intrigues of the French, who headed the adverse forces, and endeavoured to procure for that government a cession of the districts intrusted to their care; but the issue of the contest was entirely in favour of the British. From this time the ascendancy of the British in the peninsula has continued so decidedly established, as to render it needless to say any thing of the other European settlements.

20. The acquisition of territory in India, together with the new system of government and control, by rendering it necessary for persons of learning and talent to reside there, have had the effect of improving our knowledge of those remote countries, and opened to us a field of inquiry and research, peculiarly interesting and curious. Among those who may be considered as having most particularly contributed to these ends, we may reckon Mr. Wilkins and sir William Jones; the former by having first, with any real success, pursued the study of the Sanscrit language, the root of all the vernacular dialects of the peninsula, and thereby opened to the contemplation of the historian, the antiquarian, the philosopher, and the poet, whatever is interesting in the literature of all the nations east of the Indus; and the latter, by instituting the first philosophical society in those parts, and inviting the learned, in all quarters of the globe, to propose queries in every branch of Asiatic history, natural and civil, on the philosophy, mathematics, antiquities, and polite literature of Asia, and on eastern arts, both liberal and mechanic, as guides to the investigations of the persons resident in the peninsula, qualified to pursue such inquiries on the spot, and communicate to the world in general the results of their discoveries.

21. To this learned society, first established in Bengal, under the presidency of sir William Jones, we are indebted for all those curious papers preserved in the several volumes of the Asiatic Researches and the Indian Annual Register, and which have so largely contributed to enlarge the boundaries of oriental literature. To the names already mentioned, as having taken the lead in this curious branch of science, we may add those of our countrymen, Halhed, Vansittart, Shore, (lord Teignmouth, the second president, on the death of sir

William, 1,794,) Davie, Colebrook, Wilford, Rennell, Hunter, Bentley, Marsden, Orme, Carey, Buchanan, Barlow, Harrington, Edmonstone, Kirkpatrick, &c.

22. At the commencement of the present century, it became obvious to the marquis of Wellesley, then governor-general, that the state of the British empire in India absolutely required, that the persons sent out to discharge the important functions of magistrates, judges, ambassadors, and governors of provinces, should have some better means of qualifying themselves for such high stations and complicated duties, than were then in existence. His lordship's view of these matters, as recorded in the minute of council, dated August 18, 1,800, is highly deserving of consideration, and his plan for forming and endowing a college for these purposes at Calcutta, reflect the highest credit on his wisdom and discernment, though the latter has not been carried into execution in the way his lordship proposed, for want of funds. The East India College, since established in Hertfordshire, may be considered as entirely owing to the adoption by the company of the enlightened principles contained in the minute alluded to. A system of oriental education is now effectually established, which, though on a much more contracted scale, and in a great measure confined to England, bids fair, it is to be hoped, to accomplish most of the ends contemplated by his lordship in his original design of founding a college at Fort William, in Bengal, namely, "to perpetuate the immense advantages derived to the company from their possessions in India, and to establish the British empire in India on the solid foundations of ability, integrity, virtue, and religion."

23. Of the studies to be pursued, according to lord Wellesley's plan, a competent notion may be formed from the following list of professorships and lectures:—Arabic, Persian, Sanscrit, Hindostanee, Bengal, Telinga, Mahratta, Tamula, and Canara, languages; Mahomedan law; Hindoo law; Ethics, civil jurisprudence, and the law of nations; English law; political economy, commercial institutions and interests of the East India Company, geography and mathematics; modern languages of Europe; Greek, Latin, and English classics; general history, ancient and modern; the history and antiquities of Hindoostan and the Deckan; natural history; botany, chemistry, and astronomy.

24. Though the company saw reason to withhold its countenance from the original institution, the studies above chalked out have been, in a great measure, adopted in the Hertfordshire college, and its general success hitherto has been pronounced answerable to the expectations of those who were most solicitous in effecting its establishment. The education of the young men, destined to fill the civil offices in India, is now therefore partly European and partly Asiatic; for so much of the collegiate establishment in India may be said to remain, that there the students, who have been taught in England the elements of Asiatic languages, are enabled to advance to perfection, and to become masters of the several dialects prevailing through the peninsula. Though the original plan of the noble founder of the college of Fort William has not yet been adopted by the East India Company, yet to apply the words of one of the most distinguished of our orientalists, "Good has been done, which cannot be undone; sources of useful knowledge, moral instruction, and political utility, have been opened to the natives of India, which can never be closed." In 1,814, an ecclesiastical establishment, under the immediate auspices of government, was formed for India, the right reverend Dr. Thomas Fanshaw

Middleton being consecrated at the archiepiscopal palace, at Lambeth, the first bishop of Calcutta.

It must surprise the English reader to be told, that the population of the British empire in India has been lately estimated at 90,000,000!

STATE OF ARTS, SCIENCES, RELIGION, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, &c.

1. The historical events of the eighteenth century have, we must confess, been found to be of such magnitude and importance, as to occupy rather too large a space in a work professing to be merely elementary; but we should be compelled in a still greater degree to exceed the limits assigned to us, if we were to attempt to enter into the details of the very extraordinary progress that has taken place during the same period, in arts, sciences, and literature; some changes, indeed, have occurred, and more been contemplated, in religion, laws, and government, but in regard to the former, almost all things have become new: we have new arts and new sciences; and in literature, such an overflowing of books upon every subject that could possibly occupy or interest the mind of man, that the most diligent compiler of catalogues would fail in endeavouring barely to enumerate them.

2. It is somewhat extraordinary, indeed, that this great and rapid advancement of knowledge has after all been confined to only a small portion of the globe. The great continent of Africa, though better known than in past times, has made no advances in civilization. Asia, though many parts have been diligently explored during the last century, and a large portion of it actually occupied by Europeans, remains, as to the natives, in its original state. The vast empire of China has made no progress at all. Japan has effectually shut the door against all improvement. South America, indeed, though labouring under difficulties unfriendly to the progress of knowledge, is yet reported to be making no inconsiderable advances, particularly in Mexico, where both the arts and sciences are cultivated with credit and effect. In North America, also, the arts and sciences and literature may certainly be said to be in a progressive state, but under circumstances of rather slow and partial improvement.*

3. Civilized Europe is the only part of the world that can claim the credit of almost all that has been done towards the advancement of knowledge since the commencement of the eighteenth century, and only a few parts after all of civilized Europe itself. Turkey has stood still, as well as her Grecian dependencies, till very lately. Spain, Portugal, and even the greater part of Italy, have laboured under difficulties and restrictions exceedingly inimical to their advancement, and which have greatly arrested their progress in the career of letters and philosophy. The north and north-eastern parts of Europe have produced many learned men, have been diligently explored, and materials at least collected for great improvements; other parts are also upon the advance: but *England*, *France*, and *Germany*, are undoubt-

[* The writer must be under a mistake. Is it not acknowledged throughout Europe, that the United States of North America are not only farther advanced, but faster advancing, in the discoveries of science, and that their progress in literature is more rapid, than any other nation of the new world?]

edly the principal countries to which we must look for the most striking progress in every branch of human knowledge. In these three countries, in particular, discoveries have now certainly been made, and principles established, which can never be lost again, and which must, as far as they may extend, be constantly operating to the lasting improvement of the world at large.

4. It would be quite unnecessary to go back to the origin, or former state, either of the arts or sciences, now known and cultivated in Europe. It is pretty generally understood, that, comparatively with the age of the world, they have been only very recently submitted to such processes as bid fair to bring them to the highest state of perfection. One art has helped another, and new sciences been brought to light, that have greatly promoted the advancement of those before understood and cultivated. Galvanism has assisted electricity; and galvanism and electricity together been exceedingly serviceable to chemistry; chemistry to mineralogy, and so forth: new systems and arrangements, and new nomenclatures, have contributed greatly to render every step that has been taken more accurate and certain, and to place every object of attention or inquiry more exactly in the rank and order it should occupy in the general circle of arts and sciences; but the thing of most importance of all, in regard to the improvements that have taken place since the beginning or middle of the eighteenth century, is, that every thing has been conducted exactly upon those principles, which the great lord Bacon so strongly recommended, and has, therefore, been found conducive to all those great ends, the neglect of which, in his own and preceding ages, he so much deplored: every thing has had a tendency to augment the powers, diminish the pains, or increase the happiness of mankind.

5. Amongst the sciences so cultivated and advanced, since the seventeenth century, as justly to be regarded as new, we may rank *chemistry*, *botany*, *electricity*, *galvanism*, *mineralogy*, *geology*, and in many respects, *geography*: every one of these sciences has been placed on so very different a footing, by the recent manner of treating them, and by new discoveries, that it is better, perhaps, at once to consider them as new sciences, than to advert to former systems, founded on totally erroneous principles, and which have been, on that account, very reasonably exploded.

6. Chemistry, however, even in the course of the period before us, has undergone very essential changes; it is now not only a very different science from the chemistry that prevailed antecedent to the eighteenth century; but the eighteenth century itself has witnessed a remarkable revolution in its leading principles: some, indeed, of the most important changes approach nearer to the nineteenth than the seventeenth century, if they do not actually belong to the former; at all events, it was not till towards the close of the eighteenth century that chemical experiments had been pushed so far as to displace two of the elements of the old philosophy, and totally supersede the prevailing theory of heat, light, and combustion; a theory which was itself not much more than half a century old. Stahl, the celebrated disciple of Becher, born in 1,660, but who lived to 1,734, has the credit of being the author of the phlogistic system, which began to be attacked late in the last century, and seems now to be totally exploded. Whether the rival theory will ultimately maintain its ground in all points, may, perhaps, appear still doubtful to some: the French claim to be the authors of the new theory; but though the experiments they very ably conducted were highly conducive to the establishment of it,

the way seems to have been more opened to them by others than they are willing to acknowledge, particularly by English observers. The phlogistic system was a plausible theory in certain respects, but in others totally indefensible; and, perhaps, a better proof of the utility of repeated experiments could not be produced, than that which ascertained, that, instead of the extrication of a particular substance by combustion, something was undoubtedly added to, or imbibed by, the combustible body, in order to the separation of its parts; that, in fact, in the actual process of combustion, affinity produces a double decomposition, and that a certain portion of the atmosphere entering into union with the combustible body produces all those appearances, which, under the former system had been attributed to the extrication of an unknown principle of inflammability, denominated phlogiston.

7. The very curious experiments, made to confirm and establish the latter system, have been of the greatest importance in regard to other matters, particularly to that branch of the new chemistry which has been denominated the *pneumatic* system. The discoveries in this line of experiment, which has the air for its subject, exceed, perhaps, all others in importance and interest: the analysis of the common atmosphere has opened to our view a series of physical operations constantly going on, the most wonderful and delicate that can possibly be conceived: the respiration of animals is of this description. The atmosphere is now known to be a most curious compound of two sorts of air, or gases, (as they have been named of late,) the one capable of supporting life and flame, the other destructive of both: in combustion, calcination of metals, and respiration, the process is the same,—a decomposition of the atmosphere: the pure part is imbibed, and the impure part left subject to further contamination, by what is given out by the combustible, calcining, or respiring bodies during the operation: for, as it was before said, the decomposition in all instances is a double one; the proportion of the two parts of the atmosphere has been ascertained to be in a hundred, twenty-two of pure or *vital*, and seventy-eight of impure or *azotic* gas.

8. The discovery of the vital air is acknowledged by M. Lavoisier to have been common to himself with two other eminent chemists, Dr. Priestly and the celebrated Scheele. Dr. Priestly discovered it in 1,774, Scheele in 1,777, M. Lavosier in 1,775: the former seems undoubtedly to have the best claim to the discovery. M. Lavoisier, at first, called it "highly respirable air;" afterwards, as entirely essential to the support of life, "vital air:" Dr. Priestly, who lived and died an advocate for the phlogistic system, "dephlogisticated air:" and Scheele called it "empyreal air." It at last obtained another name, from its being *supposed* to be the cause of acidity, viz. "oxygen gas."

9. Who is justly to be accounted the father of the pneumatic chemistry, it would, perhaps, be hazardous to say: Dr. Black of Edinburgh has had the credit of being so, from his experiments on the carbonic acid. It has been claimed for Dr. Priestley, Scheele, and M. Lavoisier: the discoveries in this line certainly constitute a grand era in chemistry. The many various kinds of gases that have been now discovered; the very curious experiments made to ascertain their properties; the instruments invented to render such experiments certain; the new compounds that have been detected by their means, and their operation and effects in almost every branch of physics, it would far exceed our limits to describe; but it is impossible not to

notice the extraordinary discovery of the decomposition of *water*, which belongs entirely to pneumatic chemistry.

10. Till within less than half a century ago, *water* was esteemed to be so certainly an elementary principle, that but few ever dreamed of its being otherwise; and it was almost by accident that it was at last found to be a compound. In the course of certain pneumatic experiments, it was ascertained by Mr. Cavendish, that *water* was produced by a combination of two particular gases: both analysis and synthesis were resorted to, to render this curious discovery more certain, and it was at length ascertained, not only that those two gases were constantly produced in certain proportions from the decomposition of water, but that water was as constantly the result of a judicious mixture of those two gases: the *gases* thus constituting the proper principles of water, were the *vital* and *inflammable* airs of the first chemical nomenclature of modern days, better known now by the names of *oxygen* gas and *hydrogen* gas; the latter evidently so called from its importance, as a constituent base or radical of water; we owe the discovery of it to our countryman, Mr. Cavendish. The proportion between the two gases in these curious experiments has been found to be eighty-five of oxygen to fifteen of hydrogen; both oxygen and hydrogen being combustible, their combination for experimental purposes is brought about by inflammation, through the means of the electric spark.

11. Having given this short account of the leading discoveries in pneumatic chemistry; discoveries which have opened to us totally new views, of certain physical operations of the first importance, and greatly extended our knowledge of chemical substances and their properties, simple and compound, visible and invisible, confineable and unconfineable: we shall be compelled to be much more brief in what further relates to modern chemistry.

12. Of late years almost all the substances in nature have been examined; and probably almost all the combinations of them exhausted: new metals to a large amount, new earths, and new acids have been discovered; the fixed alkalis decomposed, and their nature ascertained; the whole range of chemical affinities and attractions nicely arranged and determined, as far as experiment can reach; and many elastic aeriform fluids brought to light, distinguished from each other by their different bases, which were totally unknown before to natural philosophers, under the forms in which they are now obtained: and which have been thought deserving of being formed into a *fourth class* or *kingdom*, amongst the productions of nature: the proper distinction of these elastic fluids, or *gases*, as they have been denominated, (after a term adopted by Vanhelmont, signifying a spirit or incoercible vapour,) being that of some base, saturated with the cause of heat or expansion, called in the new nomenclature *caloric;* by means of some of these gases, so combined with caloric, a power has been obtained of fusing the most refractory substances in nature.

13. To render the nice and delicate experiments necessary in this new branch of chemical science more accurate, numerous instruments have been invented, of very curious construction; such as the *eudiometer*, to measure the purity of any given portion of air; the *gazometer*, to measure the quantities, &c. of gases; the *calorimeter*, for measures of heat; to which we may add various descriptions of *thermometers* and *pyrometers*, particularly the *differential thermometer*, invented by Mr. Leslie, of Edinburgh, and its accompaniments; the *pyroscope*, or measure of radiant heat; the *photometer*, to ascertain the intensity

of light; very curious and delicate *balances*, some that are said to be capable of ascertaining a weight down to the seven millionth part, deserve to be mentioned, as extraordinary instances of skilful workmanship; many different sorts of *hygrometers* also have been constructed, particularly one by the same ingenious experimentalist already mentioned, Mr. Leslie, calculated to render more correct the examination of all processes dependant upon evaporation; but it would be endless to attempt to describe the many instruments and contrivances rendered necessary by the extreme delicacy and minuteness of modern chemical and pneumato-chemical experiments; it is sufficient to state, in a history of the progress of arts and sciences, that, in all instances, invention appears to have kept pace with experiment; and that the world has been almost as much enriched by the new-invented means of discovery, as by the discoveries to which they have conduced; while the skill and judgment requisite to construct the expensive and complicated instruments indispensably necessary for ascertaining the analysis and synthesis of bodies, with such exquisite precision, as to quantity and proportion, have conspired greatly to advance the several arts connected with such machinery, as well as to quicken the intelligence and ingenuity of the artists themselves; in this line, perhaps, nobody has acquired greater celebrity than the late Mr. Ramsden, the maker of the balance of the Royal Society, whose extraordinary powers have been alluded to above.

14. Among those who have principally distinguished themselves in the improvement and advancement of chemical science, since the commencement of the eighteenth century, we may justly mention the names of Stahl, Fourcroy, Macquer, Lavoisier, Guytonmorveau, Berthollet, Klaproth, Vauquelin, Chaptal, Gay-Lussac, Kirwan, Tennant, Wollaston, Priestley, Cavendish, Black, Irwine, Crawford, Leslie, Hall, Thompson, Brande, and Davy. To the last of whom, our illustrious countryman, we stand indebted for some of the most remarkable discoveries, and most laborious analyses of compound substances, which have taken place under the new system; nor has he been deficient in applying his scientific attainments to practical purposes, in his elements of chemical agriculture, and above all, the *safety-lamp*, whereby he may possibly, in combating the fatal effects of the fire damp in coal mines, have contributed to preserve the lives of thousands and thousands of his fellow creatures; this discovery was the fruit of many most laborious, difficult, and even dangerous experiments.

15. When we consider the many uses of chemistry, and the immense advantages to be derived from every improvement of it in a variety of manufactures, in medicine, in metallurgy, in the arts of dying, painting, brewing, distilling, tanning, making glass, enamels, porcelain, and many others, we may easily conceive that the progress and advancement of this one branch of science alone, during the last and present century, must have contributed largely to the improvement of many things, on which all the comforts and conveniences, the happiness, the security, the well-being, the prosperity, and even the lives of men, depend.

BOTANY.

1. Botany is another of the sciences, which, from the changes it has undergone, and the great progress it has made since the

commencement of the eighteenth century, may justly be regarded as new.

2. Already were the names of Ray, Rivinus, and Tournefort, well known to the lovers of this interesting study, forming as it were a new era in the history of botany, and imparting a lustre to the close of the seventeenth century, for which it will ever be memorable. Their attempts at arrangement may be justly considered as the commencement of a career which was destined to acquire its full degree of developement during the eighteenth century, under the happy auspices of the most celebrated botanist the world ever saw; the great and illustrious Linnæus.

3. This extraordinary man was born at Rashult, in the province of Smaland, in Sweden, on the 24th of May, 1,707, and before he was twenty-one years of age, had made himself so thoroughly acquainted with the study of plants, as well as with the merits and defects of his predecessors in that line, as to conceive the idea of remodelling the whole fabric of systematic botany, and of placing it on a new foundation, namely, the *sexuality* of vegetables. This bold and enterprising undertaking he not only projected, but accomplished with a rapidity and success that excited the wonder and astonishment both of his friends and enemies.

4. His first work was published in 1,730, being a brief exposition of the new principle on which his system was to be founded; and the method may be said to have been completed in 1,737, when he published his *Genera Plantarum*, which contained a description and arrangement of nearly one thousand genera, comprising upwards of eight thousand species, and constituting what has been since known by the name of the *sexual* system.

5. At first it was either opposed as a fanciful innovation, or received with doubt and distrust; but its fame soon began to spread, and to bear down before it all opposition, till it ultimately met with the almost universal reception of botanists in every country in Europe.

6. In 1,742, Linnæus was chosen professor of botany at Upsal, and in 1,753 he published his *Species Plantarum*. His authority was now supreme, and the impulse he communicated to the study of vegetables unprecedented in the annals of botany; hence the various voyages that were undertaken by his immediate disciples, Kalm, Læpling, Hasselquist, and others, or which have been since undertaken by their successors, aided by the munificence of princes, or the zeal of private individuals, as well as the various societies that were sooner or later instituted, with a view to the advancement of botanical knowledge; amongst which the Linnæan society of London, founded in 1,788, stands pre-eminent, under the presidency of sir James Edward Smith, one of the most distinguished of the followers of Linnæus, and the possessor of his herbarium, library, and manuscripts.

7. The acquisitions thus made to the mass of botanical knowledge, are altogether astonishing. Botanists are now said to be acquainted with upwards of forty thousand species of plants; and still there are regions of the earth unexplored, and flowers without a name, ("*et sunt sine nomine flores.*")

8. We cannot, however, refuse to acknowledge that botany has also derived the most important advantages from such cultivators of the science as cannot be ranked amongst the disciples of Linnæus, though they have equally contributed to the advancement of the knowledge of plants, at least in the department of the study of their natural affinities; the grand and ultimate end of botany, which Linnæus himself

knew well how to appreciate, and even to improve, as may be seen in his prelections published by Giseke, and in his *Fragments of a Natural Method.* But it was left for the illustrious Jussieu, the most accomplished botanist of the present age, to give to that method the comparative perfection which it has actually obtained, and to erect the noble superstructure of his *Genera Plantarum;* a work exhibiting the most philosophical arrangement of plants, as well as the most complete view of their natural affinities, that was ever presented to the contemplation of man.

9. This work was published at Paris in 1,789, and the *natural* method of Jussieu, which may be regarded as having at all times stood in opposition to the *artificial* method of Linnæus, seems now to be advancing to a more direct rivalship than ever. Even in the works of such botanists as profess to be the disciples of Linnæus, there seems to be a leaning to the method of Jussieu; but whether the natural method of the latter will be suffered ultimately to prevail, or the artificial method of the former, time only can show.

10. Great, however, as the progress of systematic botany has undoubtedly been, during the course of the last and beginning of the present century, the progress of physiological botany has perhaps been still greater. In proof of this, it will be sufficient to mention the names of Hales, Bonnet, Du Hamel, Hedwig, Spallanzani, Gærtner, Knight, Keith, and Mirbel; each of whom has distinguished himself in the field of phytological investigation, and eminently contributed to the advancement of the science. Above all, we must not fail to mention the name of Priestley, as being the first who introduced into the study of phytology the aid of pneumatic chemistry, which, under the happy auspices of Ingenhouz, Senebier, Saussure, Ellis, and Davy, and lastly of Gay-Lussac and Kenard, has done more to elucidate the phenomena of vegetation, than all other means of investigation, and has furnished as the foundation of the physiology of plants a body of the most curious and undoubted facts.

11. Before we dismiss this part of our subject, it is not unfit that we should notice the extraordinary progress that has been made at the same time in distinct branches of the science, as well as in the application of the arts of drawing, engraving, and colouring, for the purposes of illustration, and for exhibiting to the eye, at all times, in all places, and at all seasons, the beautiful and interesting productions of the vegetable kingdom, in such perfection, as, in some degree, to supersede the necessity of living specimens; sometimes so rare and inaccessible as to be out of the reach of the most scientific. There is no branch of knowledge which has furnished more splendid and elaborate works of this nature, than that of botany, or in which the arts have been carried to a greater degree of perfection and delicacy; and as a study so elegant and agreeable cannot well be rendered too general, it is pleasing to observe, that through the improvements that have thus taken place, and the facilities afforded to such publications, not a month passes in this kingdom without large additions being made to the general stock of botanical knowledge, in works of singular beauty and correctness; though far from costly, considering the pains bestowed upon them.

12. The lovers of botany stand greatly indebted also, to those learned persons who have made it their particular business to collect, examine, and describe the plants of countries and districts, and to supply them with distinct *Floræ*, both foreign and domestic, as the Flora Britannica of Smith, the Flora Anglica of Hudson, the Flora

Scotica of Lightfoot, the Flora Cantabrigiensis of Relhan, the Flora Oxoniensis of Sibthorpe, the Flora Londinensis of Curtis, the Flora Græca, the Flora Peruviana, the Flora Danica, the Flore Francoise, and others much too numerous to mention; in the same class may be reckoned those works which are still further confined to the description or illustration of particular genera of plants, as in our own country, the Carices, by Goodenough; the Grasses, by Stillingfleet; the Menthæ Britannicæ, by Sole; the Pines, by Lambert; the Fuci, by Turner; and various others.

ELECTRICITY.

1. Though the property of excitation existing in *amber*, (*elektron*,) appears to have been known to Thales six hundred, and to Theophrastus three hundred years before Christ, yet *electricity* (which takes its name from this circumstance) and galvanism, as it is still called, may decidedly be regarded as sciences which have sprung up during the period to which our present inquiries belong. It was not, indeed, till towards the middle of the eighteenth century that experiments in electricity were pursued with any degree of ardour, success, or advantage. Mr. Hawksbee wrote learnedly upon the subject in 1,709, but it was not till twenty years afterwards that Mr. Grey and M. du Faye at Paris, engaged in some experiments which contributed to throw light upon the subject. Mr. Grey, who resumed his experiments in 1,734, saw enough to lead him to suppose that the electric fluid and lightning were the same, which was not, however, effectually proved till the year 1,752, when the celebrated Dr. Franklin, of America, with great ingenuity, and no small degree of courage, ascertained the fact by decisive experiments; a discovery which he soon applied to practical purposes, by the invention of metallic conductors for the security of buildings, ships, &c., during storms.

2. As experiments could not be profitably undertaken till a suitable apparatus was provided, it is equally evident, that the improvement of such apparatus must greatly have depended on the progress of the science. The Leyden phial for the accumulation of the electrical power in glass, was invented about 1,745, and the general apparatus gradually improved by Van Marum, Cunæus, Dr. Nooth, Mr. Nairne, Dr. Priestley, Messrs. Read, Lane, and Adams. To professor Volta, of Como, we stand indebted for two very useful and important electrical instruments, the electrophorus, and condenser of electricity. Many sorts of electrometers for measuring the quantity and quality of electricity in an electrified body, have also been invented.

3. In 1,747 electricity began to be used for medical purposes, and was supposed to be of efficacy in cases of rheumatism, deafness, palsy, scrofula, cancers, abscesses, gout, &c.; but the progress of medical electricity has not been great, while the want of an apparatus, and the knowledge and skill requisite to apply it properly, must always prevent its becoming any very common remedy.

4. Galvanism, which may be said to have been engrafted on electricity in 1,791, was the discovery of the celebrated Galvani of Bologna; it has been called animal electricity; his first experiments having been made on animals, and tending manifestly to prove the identity of the nervous and electric fluids, though this was for some time doubted. M. Galvani discovered that, without any artificial electricity, and by merely presenting some conducting substance to

different parts of the nerves or muscles of a dissected frog, violent motions were produced, exactly similar to those which were excited by a discharge of the electrical machine.

5. The discovery of M. Galvani has since led to very important ends, through the great care and attention of M. Volta, who, improving upon his discovery of the power of conductors, has been enabled to supply the philosophical world with an instrument of very extraordinary powers, especially for purposes of chemical decomposition. At first M. Volta was led to suppose that it required only a set of different conductors, two metals and a fluid, to collect and distribute the electrical matter; he considered that, upon these principles, he had produced an artificial imitation of the electrical powers exhibited by the torpedo, the gymnotus, silurus, and tetrodon electricus; but further discoveries demonstrated that there was a chemical agency going forward all the time, and that much depended on the action of the fluids on the metals, which are all naturally excellent conductors, but become non-conductors when oxydated, some being more easily oxydated than others. The voltaic pile is a simple galvanic combination; a series of them forms a battery. The most perfect galvanic combination is held to consist in such an arrangement of metals, exposed to the action of an oxydating fluid, as are liable to very different changes; the greatest and the least. In every simple galvanic combination, water is decomposed, the oxygen entering into union with the metal, and the hydrogen being evolved.

6. Since this discovery, many have engaged in electro-chemical researches, of the utmost importance, particularly our own countryman, sir Humphrey Davy. His experiments on the alkalis and earths, and discovery of their metallic nature, being in themselves sufficient to show how wide a range of inquiry is opened to the experimentalist, by this powerful agent; it being reasonable to suppose, that there is scarcely any substance in nature, either above or below the surface of the earth, that is not subject, more or less, to the chemical agencies of electricity. Heretofore the observations of the philosopher were chiefly, if not entirely, confined to those sudden and violent changes which take place through any powerful concentration of the electric fluid. These new discoveries seem to afford him a fair chance and opportunity of tracing some at least of those manifold changes which may be brought about in a more quiet, tranquil, and insensible manner; and which, in all probability, are incessantly operating effects, hitherto little known and little suspected. It is obvious that medicine, chemistry, physiology, mineralogy, and geology, may all be greatly assisted by a more perfect knowledge of such curious and hitherto hidden processes of nature. Before the galvanic method of exciting electricity had been discovered, many very curious experiments had been made, to prove the influence of electricity on the atmosphere, magnetism, vegetation, muscular motion; in earthquakes, volcanoes, and other natural appearances and operations; all of which are likely to become better known, and further illustrated, by the application of the electro-chemical apparatus, which, since its first invention, has been already greatly improved. It may not be amiss to observe, that meteorology, as a particular branch of knowledge, has been greatly aided by all the improvements spoken of above in chemistry and electricity, and in the invention of many instruments, very simple, but chiefly to be referred to the eighteenth century; as the barometer, the thermometer, the hydrometer, the pluviameter, or rain-gauge, the anemometer, and electrometer already mentioned. Amongst the most eminent of

those who have applied themselves to this study, we may reckon Messrs. Bouguer, Saussure, De Luc, Gay-Lussac, Van-Marum, Ferguson, Cavallo, &c.; Drs. Franklin, Blagden, and Priestley; Messrs. Canton and Beccaria.

MINERALOGY AND GEOLOGY.

1. *Mineralogy* and *geology* are reasonably to be regarded as *new* sciences since the close of the seventeenth century, having been cultivated from that time in a manner totally new, and greatly advanced by the progress made in other sciences, and the improvement of many arts. They are both, however, still so much in their infancy, that a very brief account of what has taken place during the last and present century is the utmost that we can attempt.

2. It was not till towards the middle of the last century, that the modern scientific arrangements of minerals began to occupy the attention of naturalists. That indefatigable observer, Linnæus, did not overlook this branch of natural history, but introduced into the twelfth edition of his "Systema Naturæ," published in 1,768, a systematic view of "The Regnum Lapideum," which he divided into three classes, *petræ*, *mineræ*, and *fossiliæ*, many orders, and fifty-four genera. In 1,793, Gmelin republished the "Systema Naturæ" of Linnæus, with alterations and improvements.

3. Linnæus did not take the lead in such arrangements: in his own work he notices the preceding systems of Bromelius, who published in 1,730; Wallerius, in 1,747; Woltersdorf, in 1,748; Curtheuser, in 1,775; Justi, in 1,757; Cronstedt, in 1,758; and Vogel, in 1,762. Linnæus, however, has the credit of having first reduced the science of mineralogy into classes and orders, and Wallerius and himself undertook the arduous and hazardous task of fixing the specific characters of minerals. Wallerius's second system appeared in 1,772. In 1,781, Veltheim published his system at Brunswick, and in 1,782, Bergaman's made its first appearance at Leipsic.

4. Before this time the celebrated Werner, professor of mineralogy at Freyburg, in Saxony, had published a treatise on the classification of minerals, according to their external characters, which was more fully illustrated in his notes to a translation of Cronstedt, which appeared in 1,780. Werner has obtained a name amongst mineralogists and geologists, which stands deservedly high; though he seems only to have prepared the way for the observations and experiments of others, by an accumulation and description of facts and appearances, extremely curious and valuable. The fundamental principle in Werner's mineralogical arrangement, is the natural affinity of fossils, of which he enumerates three kinds: the chemical, the oryctognostical, and the geognostic. Mr. Kirwin first introduced the Wernerian system into Britain, in his treatise on mineralogy, 1,784.

5. In 1,773, the study of the regular or crystalline forms of minerals seemed to give a new turn to mineralogy. The first work of eminence in this line was the Crystallographie of the celebrated Rome de l' Isle, which was made the basis of the system of Hauy, published in 1,801. All mineral bodies are supposed by this system to be reducible by mechanical division to an *integrant molecule*. From the form and component parts, it has been proposed to deduce the specific characters. The forms of the *integrant molecule* are found to be three; the tetrahedron, the triangular prism, and the parallelapiped. Much

attention has been paid to this system, and it must be acknowledged that if the tests proposed were easily to be applied, and chemistry had proceeded so far as thoroughly to enable us to distinguish between the accidental and essential ingredients of minerals, as has been done in some remarkable instances with much effect, more direct means of distinguishing minerals could scarcely be devised: but as things stand at present, there seems to be too much geometry and chemistry necessary to render such a system generally useful. In 1,808, however, M. Chevenix, in the Annales de Chymie, gave great support to the system of Hauy, to the disparagement of that of Werner, to whom, nevertheless, he is careful to give due praise. Crystallization will long remain, probably, a subject of most curious research and inquiry among geologists as well as mineralogists; the appearances of it in primitive rocks, leading immediately to the grand question concerning the operations of fire and water, which have divided the cultivators of this branch of study into the two parties of *Plutonists*, who contend for the *igneous* origin of those rocks, and the *Neptunists*, who refer them to an *aqueous* origin; of the latter of which, was the celebrated Werner.

6. Many other systems, more or less connected with Werner's, have been made public, as Brochart's, Schmeisser's, 1,795: Babington's, 1,796; Brogniart's, (a very useful and valuable one,) Kidd's, 1,809; Clarke's, 1,811; one by Mr. Arthur Aikin; and, lastly, that of Berzelius, a Swedish chemist, who has lately attempted to establish a pure scientific system of mineralogy, by the application of the electro-chemical theory and the chemical proportions: as this system is closely connected with the latest discoveries and improvements that have been made in chemistry and electricity, we shall here close our remarks on mineralogy, as a science by no means perfected, but open to further experiments and observations, though very materially advanced since the close of the seventeenth century.

7. Geology has arisen out of mineralogy; and though no new science as to name, is entirely so according to the principles upon which it is now conducted. Werner was for giving a *new* name at once to the new science, which was a judicious step to take, though it has not been generally adopted; he called it *Geognosie*: it is fit, indeed, that it should be distinguished from the geology of old, which only engendered a parcel of fanciful theories of the earth, unfounded on facts. How the globe was formed, is a very different inquiry from that of "what has happened to it since it was formed:" modern geology is chiefly conversant with the latter; to examine the interior of the earth, as far as it can be examined, in order to understand the course of the revolutions and changes that have taken place, and of which we perceive the most manifest proofs: already very extraordinary circumstances have been discovered, indicative of successive changes, both before and after any organic beings existed, and therefore both before as well as after the globe became strictly habitable; among the most curious effects plainly to be traced, may be reckoned the extensive operations of fire and water, the extinction of many species of vegetables and animals, and the very extraordinary preservation of some of the latter, bespeaking a state of congelation, at the moment of the catastrophe by which they appear to have been overwhelmed; remains of animals in places where they no longer exist, and the extraordinary absence of human reliquiæ. The science of comparative anatomy has been of great use in these researches, in which nobody has distinguished himself so much as M. Cuvier, secretary of the French Institute.

8. Many geological societies are forming, or have been already formed, in different parts of Europe and in America, and professorships founded in our universities; but it will be long, perhaps, before the several observations and discoveries making in all parts of the world, can be so compared, classed, and methodized, as to bring out such results as may be admitted for certain and indisputable truths, in regard to the history of the earth and of man. In the mean while, we should consider that geologists have always a field to work in, abounding in materials so applicable to every useful art as to promise continual accessions of knowledge, not merely scientific, but of real practical utility.

We ought not, perhaps, to dismiss this part of our subject, without noticing the very curious geological map of England, published by our countryman, Mr. Smith, in 1,815, a work of great merit and originality.

GEOGRAPHY.

1. We have mentioned *geography*, also, as among those sciences which may be regarded as almost new, not only because it is since the middle of the last century that we have acquired a more correct knowledge of the figure of the earth, but from the extraordinary manner in which the whole terraqueous globe has been explored of late, and the additions consequently made to our former knowledge of its parts: the discoveries that have taken place since the close of the seventeenth century, have, according to the French geographers, presented to us two new quarters of the world, and which have been denominated *Australasia* and *Polynesia*. The following account may serve to explain these additions to modern geography:

2. The former is held to contain, 1. New Holland, and all the islands between twenty degrees west, and between twenty and thirty degrees east of it. 2. New Guinea and the islands adjacent. 3. New Britain, New Ireland, and the Solomon Isles. 4. New Caledonia and the New Hebrides. 5. New Zealand. 6. Van Dieman's Land, which is separated from New Holland by Basse's strait or channel, and is about thirty leagues wide.

3. The division called *Polynesia*, consists of, 1. The Pelew Islands. 2. The Ladrone or Marian Islands. 3. The Carolines. 4. The Sandwich Islands. 5. The Marquesas, which are very numerous. 6. The Society Islands, about sixty or seventy in number. 7. The Friendly Islands. 8. The Navigators' Islands. The largest island in this division is Owhyhee, one of the Sandwich Islands, and the place where the celebrated circumnavigator, Cook, lost his life.

4. The voyages and travels conducive to these discoveries are too generally known to be much dwelt upon in such a work as the present. It will be sufficient merely to mention the names of those who, since the years 1,735 and 1,736, (when the Spanish and French mathematicians undertook their celebrated missions to measure a degree of the meridian under the pole and at the equator,) have been employed by the different powers of Europe on voyages of discovery.

5. Of the English we may enumerate:

Byron, 1,764—1,766. Mr. Harrison's time-piece applied to the discovery of the longitude.

Wallis and Carteret, 1,766. Sailed together, but soon separated; Otaheite and other islands discovered.

Cook, three voyages:—
First voyage, 1,768—1,771. The transit of Venus observed at Matavai, in Otaheite, June, 1,769. New Holland, and New Zealand explored.
Second voyage, 1,772—1,775, in search of a southern continent.
Third voyage, 1,776—1,780, to discover a northern passage; fatal to captain Cook, who was killed at Owhyhee.
Portloch and Dixon, 1,785—1,788; principally to establish the fur trade, at Nootka Sound.
Vancouver, 1,790—1,795, to explore the northern passage. Unsuccessful.
Phipps, (lord Mulgrave,) north pole, 1,773.
Lord Macartney, China, 1,792.
Lord Amherst, ditto. 1,816, 1,817.
Of the French we may reckon,
Bougainville, 1,766—1,768.
La Peyrouse, 1,785—1,788, supposed to have perished.
D'Entricasteux, in search of La Peyrouse.
Marchand, 1,790—1,792.

The Spaniards appear to have employed Malaspina, an Italian, 1,790, to explore distant seas and countries; but his voyage was not published. These were all of them voyages, not merely devoted to geographical discoveries, but in which competent persons, in almost every branch of science, were concerned, to take account of whatever should offer itself to their notice, or be likely to contribute, in any manner whatsoever, to the general advancement of human knowledge; astronomy, botany, zoology, meteorology, physiology, mineralogy, and geology. Trade and commerce, navigation and the arts, were constantly in the way of receiving illustration or improvement, during these bold attempts to advance the geography of the world, and solve the difficulties which still seemed to hang about that interesting and important science. The names of Banks, Solander, Green, Sparrman, Forster, and Anderson, will descend to the remotest posterity, with that of Cook.

6. War often, indeed, interrupted these pursuits, but the eighteenth century has the credit of affording the following strong marks of the progress of civilization and liberal ideas. It was during a continental war, that (a combination of learned and scientific persons, English, French, Russians, Danes, and Swedes, in the year 1,761, laying aside their animosities, undertook the arduous task of observing, for astronomical and geographical purposes, a transit of Venus over the sun.) It was in the midst of war, that France, in a very public and formal manner, suspended all hostilities that could in any manner affect the progress or safe return of our English navigator, Cook; and both the French and English, in the course of their voyages of discovery, are known to have evinced a spirit of philanthropy and humanity very opposite to what had passed on such occasions in former ages. The improvement of every barbarous and savage people they might visit, was among the first thoughts of those who were engaged in these new adventures. Some remarkable directions to this effect, given by Louis XVI. himself to La Peyrouse, will for ever do honour to the memory of that benign but ill-fated monarch. The English circumnavigators were not less attentive to these things, but continually sought the amelioration of the savage condition of the people they visited; too often, however, quite in vain, or without any lasting effect.

7. It would be utterly out of our power to enter into any details of

the numerous researches that have been made in all parts of the globe, since the spirit of discovery was first excited, which has so remarkably distinguished the period of which we are treating. In the north and south, east and west, of both hemispheres, almost every region has been explored, and every information obtained that can throw light on the history either of the earth or of man. The two peninsulas of India, Persia, Arabia, Egypt, and Abyssinia, the northern and the southern, and, in some instances, the interior parts of Africa; Syria, Greece, and Turkey: Norway, Lapland, Siberia, and even the wilds of Tartary and Kamschatka; New Spain; the back settlements of North America, and North America itself; Iceland, Greenland, &c., have all been visited by persons of science and learning, and are almost as well known now, as the most frequented and civilized parts of Europe; all that can be ascertained of their history; all that the remains of antiquity could unfold to the eye of curiosity; all the animals, plants, minerals, they produce; have been so amply examined, described, classed, and methodized, that it may reasonably be supposed, that in very many instances, all that can be known is known. Among the travels enumerated, the scholar, in particular, has been in no ordinary degree gratified by the visits that have been recently paid to modern Greece, and by the able, classical, and scientific descriptions which have been given of that very interesting portion of the continent, by lord Byron, Mr. Hobhouse, major Leake, Dr. Holland, sir William Drummond, Dr. Clark, lord Aberdeen, sir William Gell, and others of our own countrymen; and by M. Pouqueville, who having accompanied Buonaparte to Egypt, at the close of the last century, was among the first to explore those celebrated regions.

8. The new means of inquiry and investigation, have so kept pace with the wide field lately opened to the world, that even *individuals* have been found competent to bring home with them from the most remote countries, ample information upon all the great points that can possibly interest the curiosity of man; a greater instance of this, could not, perhaps, be produced, than in the case of a living traveller and author, the celebrated M. Humboldt, of Prussia, whose multifarious researches, at a very early age, in almost all parts of the globe, have added more to the general stock of knowledge in the compass of a very few years, than could have been attained by ages of inquiry in times at all distant. In speaking of this very celebrated traveller, whose accounts of Spanish America in particular have lately excited so much attention, it is fit also to notice the removal of many restraints and impediments in the way of such researches, through the more liberal policy of the mother country; so far from expressing, as would have been the case in former times, any jealousy of such a visit to her colonies, M. Humboldt obtained the express approbation and concurrence of the Spanish court. The removal of the court of Portugal to the Brazils in the year 1807, has also proved favourable in no small degree to the prosecution of such inquiries; the king having, with considerable liberality, patronised such undertakings.

9. The sovereigns of Russia, from the time of Peter the great, through a natural desire of acquiring a correct knowledge of their very extended dominions, buried, at the close of the seventeenth century, in profound ignorance and obscurity, were careful to employ proper persons to make such discoveries, who so ably discharged their commissions, that before the end of the eighteenth century, a very celebrated German professor declared that they had amassed such a quantity of materials, entirely new, for the history of the three kingdoms

of nature, for the theory of the earth, for rural economy, and for an infinity of other objects relative to the arts and sciences, as would employ many learned men for several years, in their proper arrangement and classification. The names of Beering and Spangberg, Pallas, Gmelin, Muller, Chappe D'Auteroche, Georgi, Lepechin, are well known, as among those who have most distinguished themselves in these northern and north-eastern expeditions. Among the improvements connected with the science of geography, and its progress, we should be glad if we could do justice to the very learned and eminent persons who have, in a manner unknown before, devoted their time to the more correct delineation of the face of the globe, in the construction of maps and charts, which seem to be advancing rapidly to the highest degree of perfection. M. d'Anville, whose labours in this way are so well known, may be justly considered perhaps as having given the first stimulus in this line of study, to the geographers of modern times.

10. As the science of astronomy is in many instances connected with geography, we may here notice the changes that have taken place in regard to the former, during the last and present centuries; which, however, being only in the way of addition upon the established principles of the Copernican and Newtonian systems, are not such as can be said to have altered the character of the science itself; and, indeed, the additions that have been made are very easily enumerated, though they must have cost much pains, and are the results of very curious observations and intricate calculations, on the part of those to whom we stand indebted for them.

11. We have added five planets to those formerly known as belonging to our solar system. The Georgium Sidus, or Uranus, discovered by the celebrated sir W. Herschel, 1,781, and its satellites, 1,787; Ceres, by M. Piazzi, at Palermo, 1,801; Pallas, by Dr. Olbers, at Bremen, 1,802; Juno, by M. Harding of Lilienthal, in 1,804; and Vesta, by Dr. Olbers, 1,807. To the former of these celebrated observers we owe a most enlarged knowledge of the celestial regions, particularly of the nebulous parts, from the application of his new telescopes of most extraordinary powers, which have enabled us to ascertain that the milky-way, and other similar appearances in the heavens, are a congeries of fixed stars, in strata, prodigiously numerous, and exhibiting very curious phenomena. Of the immense amount of these stars, which may still have beyond them an unfathomable and unexplorable abyss of the same kind, we may form some conjecture from the following statement of sir William himself, who found by his gauges, in the year 1,792, that in the small space of forty-one minutes, no less than 258,000 stars, in the *via lactea*, had passed through the field of view in his telescope. Sir William places our own system in the *via lactea*. He has discovered, besides many new stars, double and triple stars, and what he calls changing stars.

12. We have learned to correct our ideas concerning the substance of the body of the sun, heretofore considered as entirely of an igneous nature. Though its rays contribute largely to the production of heat on the earth's surface, many very obvious appearances ought sooner to have convinced us of what now seems clearly to be understood, that the sun is not a body of fire.

13. The science of astronomy has been much promoted during the time of which we have been treating, by the improvement or invention of many curious and necessary instruments, and the building and establishment of regular observatories; and practical astronomy has

been carried to a very high pitch, by the talents and ingenuity of many very eminent persons in France, Britain, Germany, Italy, &c.; as M. Clairault, d'Alembert, De la Caille, La Place, La Grange, Bailly, De la Lande, &c.; Bradley, Maskelyn, Herschel, Hutton, Robison, Ferguson, Vince, &c.; Euler, Mayer, Boda, Bianchini, Boscovich, Frisi, Piozzi, &c.

14. We have spoken elsewhere of the travels, expressly undertaken in 1,753, to measure in the northern and southern parts of the world, a degree of the meridian, by which the figure of the earth was ascertained to be an oblate spheroid, according to the conjectures of sir Isaac Newton, and contrary to the assertions of the Cassinis and Bernouilli, who had for some time insisted that the polar diameter was longer than the equatorial: all the experiments seemed to concur in proving the reverse. The steps that were taken, in the years 1,761 and 1,769, to determine the parallax of the sun, by observing the transit of Venus, afford another strong proof of the extraordinary zeal and resolution with which science was cultivated during the period of which we have been treating. On the recommendation of Dr. Halley, who had observed a transit of Mercury at St. Helena, but who did not expect to live to see a transit of Venus, and who in fact died in 1,742, mathematicians and astronomers were sent out in the years before mentioned, both from France and England.

15. Among the modern inventions appertaining to astronomy, besides the instruments absolutely necessary to correct observation, we may reckon those curious and elegant machines, exhibiting the motions and phenomena of our solar system and its several parts; our orreries, planetariums, tellurians, lunariums, &c., all of which may be considered as extremely interesting and ingenious contrivances.

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1. It would be useless to attempt to give any circumstantial account of the progress that has been made in other sciences, during the period of which we have been treating, and vain to seek, by a mere enumeration of names, to do justice to the many eminent and illustrious persons who have distinguished themselves in various parts of the world, in every branch of learning, useful and ornamental, since the commencement of the eighteenth century. The numerous biographical works, chronological charts, critical and philosophical journals, which have from time to time been published during this period, may supply information much more full and copious than would be at all consistent with the limits of this work, already extended beyond their original design. As, however, the surprising burst of intellect, investigation, and enterprise which has so marked and distinguished the last and present century, appears to have been in a great degree connected with the history of Europe during the same period, we shall take a brief view of the latter; beginning with England and France; the two countries which seem in several respects to have had the most considerable share in the changes that have taken place.

2. At the period of the deaths of queen Anne and Lewis XIV. (see Sect. LXIV.) England and France appear to have stood in situations diametrically opposite. England had just obtained all that she wanted from a revolution: France had scarcely begun to feel that she stood in need of one. England had succeeded in placing her civil and religious rights on a sure footing; France was as yet but little sensible that hers had been greatly violated. England was recovering from a

state of misrule and licentiousness: France was declining more than ever into such a condition. In England, Newton had established his new system of philosophy, and Locke illustrated the principles of a free government; in France, Descartes still held the minds of men in a state of fascination and enchantment, and the people knew not what it was to be free.

3. The French government, by too great severity in political and religious matters, had compelled many of her subjects to take refuge in foreign countries, where they were at liberty to make their own reflections, to print and to publish their thoughts upon the comparative despotism of the country from which they had been driven, and the delusions to which the subjects of the latter were exposed.

4. Among those who had been thus banished, or compelled to retire, no one could have done more to unsettle the minds of his countrymen, in regard both to religion and politics, than the celebrated Bayle. His object appears, however, to have been *merely* to *unsettle* them; for his whole work is a tissue of doubts and difficulties, which he had no disposition to resolve, but to leave to every man's own judgment to determine, after having very impartially stated all the arguments and all the facts he could possibly collect, on both sides of every question.

5. The French had been so long used to submission, that merely to teach them to doubt was a grand step towards a revolution in their opinions; but Bayle did not live to see the seeds he had been sowing come to any perfection. It was not, according to the account of the French themselves, till Voltaire, partly in a state of exile, had visited England, that they began to ripen. In England, Voltaire became acquainted with the philosophy of Newton and Locke, and saw some of the best political principles of the latter established and in action; but being the guest of Bolingbroke, his deistical principles, which were very early made known by a passage in his tragedy of Œdipus, underwent no change, or were probably more deeply fixed and confirmed.

6. Though Shaftesbury, Wolston, Collins, Toland, Tindal, and others, had attacked revelation, and either openly or insidiously sought to imbue the minds of the English with their deistical principles; the public in general were little affected by their writings. Men of superior talents, superior credit, and very superior learning, had lived, or were living, capable of giving a different tone to the feelings of the people. Newton, Locke, Addison, Steele, Clarke, Swift, &c., were amply sufficient to support the cause of religion; and not only to defend the very outworks of christianity, but to avert the shafts of ridicule, and set at naught the sarcasms of infidelity. In those admirable periodical papers, the Spectator, the Guardian, the Tattler, &c., we may trace a direct and most benevolent design of securing the rising generation from the contagion of bad examples, and the influence of false principles.

7. In France it was otherwise: deism, though weak against the plain evidences of christianity, was strong against the fanaticism of a bigoted, and the superstition of a corrupted church. The banter of Voltaire soon began to take effect, when aimed at things and persons so vulnerable as the monastic orders, and the controverted points in dispute between the Jesuits and Jansenists. The defence of religion also, in consequence of these disgraceful and puerile conflicts, and the plausibility of the attacks that were made upon it, which struck hard at its abuses, fell into hands little capable of wielding the weapons so effectually employed in England. The dread of derision too soon

damped the spirit of pulpit eloquence, which had cast such a lustre on the names of Saurin, Massillon, &c.; and converted even the christian preacher into a philosopher of the modern school. Among those who first appeared in defence of revealed religion against the deists, the French themselves have particularly mentioned the younger Racine, the cardinal de Polignac, and M. Le Franc de Pompignan. The first wrote a heavy poem, which few read; the second a long philosophical poem in Latin, which not many could read; and the last published some *sacred* odes, of which Voltaire found room to say, with his usual wit, "*Sacrés ils sont, car personne n'y touche.*" Though Voltaire might have imbibed his deism in part from Bolingbroke, it was plainly not a plant of English growth; but it proved to be sadly congenial at that time to the soil of France.

8. The regency had wrought a great change in the principles and manners of that lively people. The profligate habits of the duke of Orleans opened a wide field to libertines and freethinkers, and naturally encouraged them to speak their minds more freely upon all subjects than would otherwise have been consistent with the spirit of the government. Religion and morals, indeed, could not have received a greater blow than from the extraordinary elevation of the infamous Dubois to the rank of cardinal, and to the archbishopric of Cambray, so lately filled by the amiable and virtuous Fenelon.

9. While the morals of the French were thus becoming daily more depraved, the manners of the English were evidently much improved. The grave and austere character of William III., the correct government of Mary, and her sister, queen Anne, had effectually checked the licentiousness of the two preceding reigns, and given encouragement to a set of writers peculiarly capable of animating the age, of inculcating true piety and sound morality, and giving a better tone to the amusements of the public. Instead of the gross indecencies which had disgraced the writings and degraded the talents of Vanbrugh, Behn, Congreve, and even Dryden, the taste and manners of the nation derived great improvement and advantages from the more chaste and correct performances of Addison, Steele, Rowe, Prior, Pope, Thomson, Akenside, &c. The stage underwent a wholesome reformation, and in every department of literature there appeared a manifest leaning towards whatever could conduce to purity of sentiment and delicacy of feeling.

10. Had Voltaire carried back with him to our shores, as he might have done, a purer form of christianity, and a better system of morals, as well as a more correct philosophy, and sounder principles of government, he might have conferred a lasting benefit on his country; a benefit the more timely and critical, as it would possibly have prevented some of the worst evils which befel that unhappy nation in her subsequent struggles for liberty. Boyle had taught the French to doubt; Voltaire, having taken a near, though imperfect view of England, taught them to think and to inquire; while a greater man than himself was contributing, though more slowly and silently, to the same end.

11. Almost at the very time that Voltaire was in England, Montesquieu visited the same country; but appears principally to have confined his views to the great object of his researches, the spirit of her laws, and the leading principles of her admirable constitution. There he learned to admire, in its purest form, a limited monarchy, and a system of jurisprudence, equally adverse to tyranny and licentiousness; equally friendly to the wholesome authority of the magistrate, and the

just rights of the people. Montesquieu, however, (though in his Persian Letters he had betrayed a leaning towards deism,) moved in a line distinct from that generally taken by the philosophers of the day. While Voltaire very soon manifested a desire of taking the lead of all the wits and freethinkers, however different their talents, their characters, or their principles, Montesquieu was not displeased to be left to himself, and to leave his great work to make its own impressions, however slowly, on sensible and ingenuous minds. Its first effects of any importance may, perhaps, be traced in the remonstrances of the parliaments, who began to take a higher tone after the publication of *L'esprit des Lois*, and to consider themselves more in the light of representatives of the people.

12. A number of very extraordinary men were beginning at the same time to draw upon themselves the attention of the world, and to employ their talents in different lines, and often upon very different principles, to enlighten the world, and emancipate it from the thraldom of ancient prejudices and inveterate abuses. Among these, however, none were more extravagantly eccentric than J. J. Rousseau. This extraordinary man was decidedly for new modelling the whole system of political society, and reducing it to principles which existed only in his own imagination. Not having ever seen a race of savages, he fancied they must be the more perfect the nearer they were to a state of nature; and being tormented with the restraints of civilized society, he concluded civilization itself to be an evil. These sophisms served to render him the idol of the equalizing and destroying demagogues of the revolution. It was impossible to resist the impressions made by the captivating pictures he drew; but they seldom had any better effect than that of rendering his votaries as dissatisfied with the world as he himself was, and bewildering their imaginations with doubts and difficulties innumerable. He knew how to appreciate the sublime morality of the gospel, though he could not regulate his own actions by it; and having found in the bible, as in all other cases, something that dissatisfied his restless and irritable mind, and reviling what he could not approve, or did not sufficiently understand, he certainly did as much mischief to the cause of revealed religion, calling himself a christian all the while, as the worst of his deistical contemporaries. His opinions and his actions, as exhibited in his own writings, will for ever render him an object of admiration mingled with pity, if not in some instances with abhorrence!

13. But it was, in no long course of time, discovered that the free opinions that were afloat, and which were as various as the persons who entertained them, and who had as yet no common bond of union, as Voltaire, Rousseau, Buffon, Diderot, D'Alembert, Ducios, Helvetius, Marmontel, Condillac, Raynal, Volney, (to name but a few,) should by some means or other be embodied and consolidated, that the whole of their several thoughts and observations on different subjects might be presented to the world in a mass. This was the origin of that great and voluminous undertaking, the Encyclopedie, spoken of before, planned by Diderot and D'Alembert; and which, to say the least of it, seemed to be a treasure of universal science, far more comprehensive, at least, than any thing of the kind before attempted, being not confined to what might strictly be called the arts and sciences, but extending to every question of government, civil economy, and finance.

14. The Dictionnaire Encyclopedique, amidst many faults and extravagances, contained undoubtedly much important matter, written in

so agreeable a style, as to be admirably fitted to excite and promote a thirst after general knowledge, universal inquiry and investigation, a confidence in private judgment, and a prejudice against every thing that appeared to have no other support than custom and authority. Wheat might be torn up with the tares, and tares often sown instead of corn: but it must be acknowledged that we stand indebted to the projectors of this work for the detection and extirpation of many errors, and the powerful stimulus given by their movements to the spirit of free inquiry and useful research.

15. The persons engaged in it have been so generally called philosophers, and have been styled such in so many histories of the French revolution, that it is almost necessary to observe that the greater part of them bore little resemblance to those who had heretofore been dignified with that title. The regent, duke of Orleans, though dissolute in his habits of life, was a man of taste, talent, and information: so that the *savans* of France, who had heretofore been a retired order of men, became about this period the life of society, and the ornaments of the highest circles in the metropolis. Some few, indeed, still kept at a distance from the court, but, generally speaking, such was the state of things during the regency; and afterwards, when Lewis XV. fell into that disgraceful course of life, which clouded his latter days, and subjected him and his mistresses to the censure of the clergy, even Voltaire, whom the king personally disliked, and the Encyclopædists, as enemies to the clergy, were taken into favour. They were often indeed dismissed again, but never entirely driven from court.

16. This change of public opinion, even in the highest circles, introduced the learned into places where they never appeared before, and gave them a new character. While the influence which the men of letters thus began to acquire in society, obliged the noblesse to change their habits also, and to mingle with those who before formed a distinct class; it obliged them also to cultivate learning themselves, and even the females found it necessary to become more or less philosophical.

17. In the mean while some of these modern philosophers had other European courts set open to them, particularly in the northern parts of Europe, where a greater degree of liberty in the article of opinion already prevailed, very different from the bigoted and Machiavelian principles of Rome and Italy, which had hitherto borne sway. Catherine II. of Russia, and Frederic of Prussia, through a laudable desire probably of improving and enlightening their semi-barbarous dominions, invited thither some of the most busy of the French literati; but with little judgment or discrimination. Frederic, besides Voltaire, D'Alembert, and Maupertius, gave free admission, and even encouragement, to the atheist La Mettrie, the marquis D'Argens, and the abbe de Prades; and Catherine received, and greatly patronised in his latter years, the celebrated Diderot. Thus, with the knowledge and learning which the new philosophers really possessed, scepticism and infidelity were spread far and wide, and there was a sad mixture of darkness and illumination in all they taught.

18. The French revolution has been attributed to the literati, or philosophers of those days; but we should greatly err, if we were to suppose that they contemplated generally such a dissolution of things as afterwards took place; many, indeed, were dead before the revolution commenced. Neither Voltaire nor Montesquieu were republicans; the former had a supreme contempt for the populace; and,

by his flattery of Catherine II. and the marchioness de Pompadour, would seem to have had little of the republican spirit in him. Indeed it has been asserted of him, that "he loved kings." Raynal is said to have shuddered when he saw his own violent imprecations on despotism and tyranny brought into action. Some, however, undoubtedly threw aside all restraints, openly declared themselves deists, atheists, &c., and to their abominable blasphemy and infidelity we may reasonably impute many of the evils which marked those dreadful times: but, in truth, the history of opinions ceases to be connected after a short time with the French revolution. It very soon became a struggle of passions and private interests, and at length terminated in a catastrophe as fatal to the literati as to the throne and the altar. That fatal instrument, the *guillotine*, so much spoken of at that time, was stained with the blood of some of those very persons who had contributed most to the advancement of knowledge, and the propagation of liberal ideas.

19. The impulse, however, was now given to two of the most curious, ingenious, and inquisitive nations of Europe, and nothing could possibly exceed the rapidity with which every branch of science has since been cultivated; in Britain, constantly with more steadiness, gravity, and judgment, than in France, though not with more zeal and activity. The Germans, in the mean while, in the northern parts more particularly, seem to have devoted their time to studies of rather a different description, being known chiefly for works of intense research and most profound learning. Experimental philosophy, natural history, and chemistry, have indeed been also cultivated by them with considerable success; but in works of fancy, wit, and humour, they have not acquired so much credit as their neighbours. A singular disposition to indulge in tales of wonder, chivalry, and knight-errantry, has been manifested in most of their works of imagination; and in metaphysics, they have produced systems, which, while they betray an extraordinary talent for the investigation of such abstruse subjects, are certainly more to be admired for their ingenuity than their utility.

20. No country in Europe, perhaps, can have undergone greater improvements, during the period of which we have been treating, than Russia; but her improvement has not been so much progressive as sudden. The mighty genius of Peter the great determined him to introduce his own extensive empire at once into the commonwealth of Europe; and, instead of waiting to give his subjects a capacity for improving themselves, as other nations had done, he eagerly adopted all that had been discovered elsewhere, and converted his rude people into a civilized nation, just as far as such methods could reach. He taught them to adopt and imitate what they were as yet in no condition to invent, or even improve, and left it to his successors to fill up the gaps that might remain unprovided for at the time of his death. His subjects, or rather slaves, obeyed his dictates, and have continued since to learn from their neighbours, till they have attained to such proficiency in the arts of life, as to be no longer regarded as a rude or ignorant people, though all the other countries of Europe had the start of them till the very close of the seventeenth century.

21. Peter the great had, in a small compass of time, some very weak and some very wise successors. The former have not been suffered to stand long in the way of the latter, and though their removal has savoured little of the civilization and improvement of which we have been speaking, it cannot be denied that Russia has been pre-

vented by many singular occurrences from relapsing into her former state of rudeness and barbarity. The extremes of magnificence and rudeness, indeed, are too often found to meet; and the middle class has by no means yet acquired that importance in society which is so essential to every well-regulated government. The state of things still exhibits too much of the old narrow line of distinction, of lords and vassals; nevertheless, Russia has obtained much, and advanced considerably. Where, little more than a century ago, wolves fed and sought their prey, an immense and magnificent city and metropolis now stands, thronged with inhabitants from all parts of the globe; but perhaps it would be well if she would consent to step back and give a solid and more natural base to her acquirements. The system of adoption and imitation has brought her to a state rather of superficial than of real greatness. She has had her universities before her schools; but it could not well be otherwise in so sudden an improvement: much remains to be done before the nation at large, in its several relations, social and political, can be said to be really and effectually civilized.

22. Sweden, during the eighteenth century, produced many eminent men, and contributed largely to the advancement of science. It may be sufficient to mention, in proof of this, the names of Linnæus, Wallerius, Cronstadt, Bergman, Scheele, Thunberg, and Sparrman.

23. The Danes have not been idle, but have encouraged in many ways the promotion of literature and philosophy; mathematics and astronomy, zoology, botany, and other sciences, have been cultivated with good success; and many splendid works are extant, that reflect great credit on the spirit and ardour of the government, as well as of individuals, and the learned societies instituted and established there.

DISCOVERIES AND INVENTIONS.

1. Many new discoveries and inventions of lasting benefit to mankind, as well as many most essential improvements of old inventions and discoveries, have marked the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries; some of the most remarkable of which it will be sufficient merely to name, as they are already become too common and familiar to need explanation: such as *inoculation*, and much more recently, *vaccination*; *steam-engines* and *steam-boats*; printing of *linen* and *cotton* cloths; *paper* for *rooms*; *figured silks* and *carpets*; *spinning machines*; *stereotype* printing, and *lithographic engraving*; *musical types*; *porcelain* and *pottery*; particularly *Welch* and *iron-stone* china; *lightning conductors*; *time-pieces*; *pneumatic*, *electrical*, and *galvanic* apparatus; *life-boats* and *life-preservers*; the *speaking-trumpet*, *safety-lamp*, *telegraphs*, *gas-lights*, *panoramas*, *balloons*, *reflecting* and *achromatic telescopes*, *concave mirrors*, with various other *optical* and *astronomical* instruments.

2. Laws and governments have been advancing towards a greater degree of perfection, though in many countries very slowly, and manifestly under difficulties and impediments which time only can remove. The French revolution opened people's eyes to ancient abuses; but by inducing all the evils and horrors of anarchy, did by no means accomplish so much for real liberty, as might have been wished and expected; like other tumultuary revolutions, it terminated in a military despotism, and its effects on the continent of Europe have been hitherto partial, and apparently of much less importance as

to the actual amelioration of things than many persons expected. Still we may justly enumerate among the changes conducive to the future benefit, comfort, and happiness of mankind, the steps taking in several states to restore or establish the representative system of government; the dissolution of many monastic institutions, and feudal privileges; the check that has been given to arbitrary imprisonment, torture, the horrors of the inquisition, and the African slave-trade; the improvements that have taken place, principally through the interposition of our benevolent countryman, Mr. Howard, in the management of prisons, and the extraordinary steps lately taken, especially in the British dominions, for the better education of the poor and their instruction in religion.

3. It would be vain indeed to attempt to enumerate the astonishing additions that have been made within these few years, to the public establishments for the promotion of knowledge, the advancement of professional skill, and the relief of the necessities of mankind. Philosophical societies of all descriptions have been formed in various parts, under the most favourable circumstances of support and encouragement. The propagation of christianity has been attended to, and promoted with extraordinary zeal, not only by individuals, but by missionary and Bible-societies, far too numerous to mention. Every description of medical, chirurgical, and other assistance, has been furnished to the poor, by a most extraordinary increase of hospitals and infirmaries, dispensaries, asylums, and charity-schools. The naval and military professions have had the benefit conferred on them of new and distinct academies, including a charitable provision for the children of those who have perished in either service. The improved state of chemistry and mechanical skill, has advanced many arts to a very high degree of perfection, and much assisted both the manufacturing and agricultural industry; nor should we omit to mention, as among the improvements of latter years, by which our own country in particular has been benefited in the highest degree, the amendment of the public roads, the increased means and facilities of public conveyance and communication, and the advancement of inland navigation.

RELIGION.

1. In regard to religion, from the close of the seventeenth century to the year 1,820, we may remark that paganism continues to prevail over the greater part of Asia, Africa, and the new discovered islands, as well as among the Indians of America, North and South, (in the settlements of the Spaniards and Portuguese, the Roman Catholic religion has been introduced of course.) Mahometanism prevails in some parts of India, in Persia, Arabia, Egypt, the States of Barbary, Syria, and Turkey. The Jews continue dispersed over every part of the world, but in a state and condition far better than was formerly the case; in Europe they are no longer exposed to cruel and wanton acts of oppression and persecution, and in some countries they have obtained important privileges. In Abyssinia the majority of the people are said to be christians, and throughout the whole of the European settlements of North America, christianity is the received religion, though under a variety of denominations,—Congregationalists, Presbyterians, Dutch reformed church, Episcopalians, Baptists, Quakers, Methodists, Roman Catholics, German Lutherans, German Cal-

vinists, Moravians, Tunkers, Mennonists, Universalists, Swedenborgians, and Shakers.

2. In regard to religion or christianity, on the continent of Europe, it has been already shown what rude attacks it had to sustain, during the course and progress of the French revolution. Deism and even atheism were openly avowed in their national assemblies: the immortality of the soul and resurrection of the body scouted at, and death pronounced to be an eternal sleep. Paganism was in some degree revived, the tree of liberty substituted for the cross, and the goddess of reason elevated above the God of Christians. During the directorial and consular governments, however, catholicism was restored, but under very altered circumstances; without its accompaniments of monasteries and nunneries, and very much detached from the sway and authority of the papal see.

3. The protestant churches, of all sects and denominations, have done much, as was before observed, by missions in every direction, to spread the knowledge of christianity, but seldom with that cordiality and unanimity that might have been wished, and which could not have failed to have given greater effect to their exertions. Among those who have appeared most zealous, though not most discreet, we may reckon the *Moravians* and *Methodists;* two sects or parties, whose most avowed object it has been to stem the torrent of vice and corruption, prevailing amongst professed christians. The methodists have generally called themselves of the church of England, though in many material respects they appear to have deviated from it, both in doctrine and discipline, and have for some time been divided amongst themselves into two great parties, one espousing the Calvinistic, the other the Arminian, tenets. It is common to refer the origin of Methodism to the year 1,729, when the two brothers, John and Charles Wesley, took the lead of those who adhered to the Arminian doctrines. Mr. George Whitefield, who joined them in 1,735, became, in 1,741, the head of the Calvinistic division.

4. The modern Moravians take their date from the year 1,722, when they first settled at Hernhut, in Upper Lusatia, on the estates of Nicholas Lewis, count of Zinzendorf, who, in 1,735, became their bishop. They profess to receive the Augsburg confession; are meek and quiet in their habits and principles, but have at times adopted a strange phraseology, which was thought to affect their moral character, and procured them many enemies. As missionaries they have been extremely active, particularly in the West Indies and America: they profess to be the remains of the Hussites.

5. The emperor Joseph II. relieved his protestant subjects of all denominations from many galling restrictions, and greatly abridged the power of the pope. Many catholic princes, even the ecclesiastical states, followed his example in various particulars. In favouring, however, an unlimited freedom of opinion at such a moment, he opened the door to the introduction of deistical principles, and facilitated the formation of a sect of illuminati, which, during the course and progress of the French revolution, taught and disseminated doctrines adverse in the highest degree to the order of civil society, the rights of property, and the christian faith.

6. The papal authority, during the latter years of the period under discussion, has been greatly abridged in all countries heretofore subject to it; even in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and Sicily; nor is it likely to be recovered, notwithstanding the attempts lately made to restore partially the order of Jesuits and the inquisition. Of the indignities

offered to the last and present pope by the French we have spoken elsewhere. At one time they so entirely took the reins of government at Rome into their own hands, that the pope and cardinals were obliged to take flight, in which situation Pius VI. died. His successor, Pius VII., since the final overthrow of Buonaparte, has lived in peace and quietness, in his capital, exercising, notwithstanding his recall of the Jesuits, a very tolerant and inoffensive sway. It is, however, to be lamented, that, in the instance of the pope, as well as of the king of Naples, and others, their resentment of the French usurpations on their return to their dominions has been carried so far as to abrogate every ordinance of the French Emperor, however wise or salutary, and even to undo what had been begun, manifestly tending to the improvement of their respective countries.

HISTORY, POLITE LITERATURE, FINE ARTS, &c.

1. We feel ourselves rather at a loss to give any satisfactory account of the progress that has been made in the branches of knowledge pointed out by the title of this section: it would far exceed our limits to attempt to enumerate the many historical works that have been published during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, or to go into any regular discussion of the particular merits of the several poets, painters, musicians, philosophers, philologists, &c. &c., who may be said to have distinguished themselves in the period of which we have been treating. To do this with any degree of justice, we should be obliged, perhaps, to divide them into many classes, and assign to the several individuals of the long list that might be produced, their respective ranks and stations, from the highest degree of perfection to mediocrity, or lower; we should have to draw a comparison between them and their predecessors, and consider, in various points of view, every advance they had made in their different callings, studies, and pursuits: but such a discussion would be quite unsuitable to a work like the present. Many of those, indeed, who have contributed to enlarge the boundaries of knowledge during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, have been already mentioned: but there are still some names which almost demand our notice, before we entirely close this volume. It should, however, be observed, that many very eminent persons, who lived till long after the commencement of the eighteenth century, belong to a different period, having been the ornaments of what is called the age of Louis XIV. It may be best, perhaps, to arrange the few we feel bound to select from the great mass of authors, artists, &c., according to their countries.

2. In Germany the following may be said to have acquired a high reputation: Mascov, Mosheim, Pfeffel, Herder, Muller, in *History*; Schiller in *History* and *Tragedy*: Klopstock, Gesner, Wieland, Kotzebue, Goethe, in *Poetry* and *Dramatic writing*; in *Painting*, Mengs; Ingenhouz in *Chemistry*, and Bede in *Astronomy*; Handel, Gluck, Haydn, and Mozart, in *Music*; Lavater in the fanciful science of *Physiognomy*. Even the names of Mesmer, Mainaduc, Gall, and Spurzheim, may require to be mentioned, as having for some time, in an extraordinary manner, amazed the ignorant, and deceived the credulous, by their strange systems of *Animal Magnetism* and *Craniology*.

3. In France, Camlet, Montfaucon, the Count de Caylus, Rollin-Vertot, Rapin, Goguet, Millot, Raynal, Mably, and the Abbe Bar-

thelemy, particularly distinguished themselves in the line of *History* and *Antiquities*; to whom we may now add, perhaps with reason and justice, Mad. de Stael, and M. La Cretelle. M. Bailly, one of the victims of the Revolution, rendered himself conspicuous by his very curious History of Astronomy, and other works. Many of his contemporaries, who applied themselves to other branches of science, have been already mentioned. Some of them also fell by the hands of the public executioner, during the dreadful period of the Revolution. Their most celebrated *painter*, however, David, escaped, but with more reputation as an artist than as a man; for his own proceedings, as a revolutionist, were base and sanguinary.

4. In Great Britain, we have to boast, in the line of *History*, of the names of Robertson, Watson, Hume, Gibbon, Lyttelton, Goldsmith, Roscoe, Russell, Gillies, Ferguson, Stuart, Mitford; in *Law*, of Sir William Blackstone, whose Commentaries, for elegance and perspicuity of diction, stand unrivalled. Bolingbroke and Swift are justly held to have improved the English language, in the two main articles of energy and beauty. The style of Dr. Johnson is less chaste, though, perhaps, equally forcible. The name of Adam Smith will probably descend to the latest posterity, for his masterly work on the wealth of nations, a subject in which he seems almost to have taken the lead, as an original writer. In *Painting*, the names of Hogarth, Reynolds, and West, stand high for originality, taste, conception, and expression; in *Metaphysics*, Hume, Hartley, Berkeley, Reid, Baxter, and Priestley, have distinguished themselves. To the *Poets* already mentioned we must add Gay, Young, Shenstone, Collins, Gray, Mason, Cowper, Crabbe, Scott, Byron; as *Novelists*, Richardson, Smollett, Fielding, Burney, Edgeworth, &c. Garrick and Siddons have conferred immortal honour on the English *Stage*.

5. Italy, though labouring under great disadvantages, has been by no means deficient in learned and scientific persons, since the close of the seventeenth century. In history and antiquities, in poetry, dramatic works, natural history, drawing, engraving, and sculpture, the following names richly deserve to be delivered down to posterity: Baronius, Giannone, Muratori, Maffei, Metastasio, Goldoni, Algarotti, Gozzi, Tiraboschi, Beccaria, Spallanzani, Alfieri, Bartolozzi, Cipriani, Canova. France and Italy seem to have a joint claim to a living author of considerable fame, M. Simondes de Sismondi.

TREATY OF VIENNA, 1,815.

1. As Europe, generally speaking, may be said to continue at this moment in the state in which it was left by the above treaty, we shall conclude with a brief sketch of the changes that took place at that memorable period. The duchy of Warsaw was given to the emperor of Russia, with permission to assume the titles of czar and king of Poland, some parts, however, being secured to Prussia, under the title of grand Duchy of Posen. The town of Cracow, in Little Poland, on the banks of the Vistula, was declared to be for ever a free, independent, and strictly neutral city, under the protection of Austria, Russia, and Prussia. The king of Saxony was confirmed in his regal titles, but at the price of many important cessions to Prussia, principally that of the duchy of Saxony. Prussia, besides, recovered Dantzic, Quedlinburg, and many other places; yielding, however, to the king of Great Britain, now become king of Hanover also, many

lordships and principalities, in other parts of Germany. A new Germanic confederation was established, the members of which were declared to be equal in their rights, and bound to render to each other mutual assistance. Their affairs to be confided, first to a federative diet, amounting to seventeen votes; and, 2dly, to a general assembly, forming sixty-nine votes; who are to decide upon all regulations touching the fundamental laws of the confederation. The diet to assemble at Frankfort on the Maine, and Austria to preside. The three important fortresses of Landau, Mentz, and Luxembourg, being assigned over to the confederation.

2. The united provinces of the Netherlands, late the Belgic states, were formed into a kingdom, jointly with those of Holland, in favour of the house of Orange Nassau, late stadtholders; and to the same sovereign was granted the duchy of Luxembourg, with the title of grand duke.

3. The integrity of the nineteen cantons of Switzerland was acknowledged, and guarantied; and Geneva, for the first time, constituted a canton of the Helvetic confederacy. The states of Genoa were annexed to the kingdom of Sardinia, in the place of many renunciations on the part of the latter power, principally in favour of Geneva. The grand duchy of Tuscany was settled on the archduke Ferdinand of Austria; and king Ferdinand the IVth was restored to the sovereignty of the Two Sicilies.

PART FOURTH.

UNITED STATES.

SECTION I.

DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

1. It was somewhat natural that the distinguished author of the Elements of History should almost exclusively confine himself to the great events of the old world. It will be observed that the discovery of America by Columbus embraces only a short space, (see Section XLI.) and that North America, the first settlement of the United States, the revolution and severance of those states from the crown of Great Britain, and the more recent dispute of the States with Great Britain, are dismissed by both authors in a few words. (See Section XLII., and Sections VIII. and XX. of the Continuation.) This consideration will suggest the propriety of a more particular narration of the events which relate to the United States, for whose particular use the present edition of this work is intended.

2. The honour of accomplishing an exploit so sublime as that of the discovery of this western hemisphere, was gained by Christopher Columbus. This great man, a native of Genoa, descended from a respectable family, was well qualified by nature and education to become distinguished on the ocean. Ardently inclined towards that element, he went to sea at the age of fourteen. After a variety of adventures serving to enlarge his knowledge more than to increase his fortune, he went to Lisbon. Here, having married the daughter of Perestrello, a Portuguese navigator of much celebrity, his favourite passion of making discoveries was rendered more irresistible by reading the journals of his father-in-law, which had fallen into his hands.

3. The attention of the Portuguese was at that time directed to the finding a passage by water to the East Indies; and they intended to accomplish this purpose by passing to the south until they reached the southern extremity of Africa, and then taking an easterly course. The spherical figure of the earth was then known, and its magnitude had been ascertained with some good degree of accuracy: and the active mind of Columbus, after having attentively compared the observations of modern navigators with the conjectures of the ancients, at last came to the conclusion, that, by sailing directly to the west, new countries, which it was likely formed a part of the great continent of Asia, must be discovered. His opinion was strengthened by the discovery, after a long course of westerly wind, of pieces of carved wood, trees, and canes, and dead bodies, the natives of another clime, driven on the shores of the Madeira isles and the Azores.

4. Fully satisfied with the truth of his system, Columbus was impatient to bring it to the test of experiment. He first made application to the senate of Genoa for patronage, desirous that his native country should reap the fruits of his labour and ingenuity; but here his proposals were rejected as the dream of a chimerical projector. Not discouraged by this repulse, he laid his plans before John king of Portugal, who basely attempted a fraud on him, by despatching a vessel in pursuit of the discovery, after drawing from Columbus all the information which treachery could devise. The pilot selected for this purpose, being no less dishonest in courage than were his employers in dignity and justice, returned to Lisbon without making any discovery.

5. Disgusted with the treachery, Columbus instantly went to Spain, and laid his plan before Ferdinand and Isabella, at the same time that he sent his brother Bartholomew to England, for the purpose of negotiating for the patronage of Henry VII., reported to be one of the most sagacious and opulent princes of the age. Accident deprived England of the renown of this discovery: the brother of Columbus on his way being captured by pirates, and detained in captivity many years: although arriving in England in great indigence, Henry received the overtures of Columbus more favourably than any other monarch, and invited him to that country. But it was too late. The great discoverer, after combating many and sore disappointments, succeeded at length in securing the Spanish court, aided by two rich, generous, and vigilant patrons, Quintanella and Santangel. Ferdinand was still restrained by his characteristic caution and reserve: but Isabella, alive to the glory which must accrue from the accomplishment of so grand an enterprise, declared her resolution to employ Columbus; and, in the low state of her finances, consequent on a long and serious contest with the Moors, who had then but just been expelled from Spain, offered to pledge her jewels in order to complete

the preparations of the voyage: Santangel however relieved the difficulty, by advancing from his private purse the necessary sum.

6. April 17, 1,492, more than seven years after the date of his first application, an agreement with Columbus was concluded. The expedition was fitted out at Palos, a small town of the province of Andalusia; but it was badly suited to the service for which it was intended. It consisted of three vessels, the Santa Maria, the Pinta, and the Nigna—the first of inconsiderable burthen commanded by Columbus as admiral; and the two last, not superior in size to large boats, by two brothers, Martin and Vincent Pinzon: the whole provided with ninety men, and victualled for twelve months.

7. August 3, Columbus set sail. He touched at the Canary islands, where he refitted his crazy vessels, and departed from Gomera, Sept. 6. Here he took his course due west, leaving the track of all former navigators, and stretched boldly into seas unknown. Very soon his sailors, alarmed at the distance they had proceeded without finding the expected land, began to mutiny, and placed Columbus in a situation in which any other man would have yielded to their entreaties to return. Fertile in expedients, possessing a thorough knowledge of mankind, an insinuating address, and a happy talent at governing, he succeeded day after day in beguiling the discontented seamen far beyond their own determinations, until every succeeding hour presented stronger and stronger indications that land could be at no great distance. For some days the sounding line had reached the bottom; the flocks of birds increased, and some of them of a kind supposed to fly not far from shore; the clouds around the sun assumed a new appearance; the air was more mild, and, during the night, the wind became unequal and variable. On the evening of Oct. 11, he ordered the ships to lie to, in the fear of running ashore. That night Columbus observed a light, which seemed to be carried about from place to place; and a little after midnight, was heard from the Pinta the joyful cry of Land!

8. When the morning dawned, an island was seen about two leagues to the north: its verdant fields were well stored with wood, presenting the aspect of a delightful country. All the boats were immediately manned and armed. The Spaniards rowed towards the shore with their colours displayed. As they approached the beach, they saw it covered with a multitude of people, whose attitudes and gestures discovered wonder and amazement. Columbus was the first who set foot on this new world which he had discovered. His men followed; and all kneeling, kissed the ground that they had long desired, but never expected to behold: here he erected a crucifix, returned thanks to God, and with the usual formalities took possession of the country. To this island, called by the natives Guanahana, Columbus gave the name of St. Salvador: it is one of the large cluster called the Bahamas, more than three thousand miles west, but only four degrees south of Gomera, the port of the Canaries which he last left.

9. After discovering several other islands, amongst which were Cuba and Hayti; and using every precaution to secure the benefit of a first discovery, by erecting a fort and leaving a party of men on the island of Hayti; on the 4th of January, 1,493, Columbus set sail for Europe. The shattered condition of his vessels would have rendered the voyage at any time unsafe; but a succession of storms had well nigh committed to the bosom of the deep, and with it the secret of his discovery, his little flotilla. The whole, however, arrived.

10. At first it was generally supposed, from a similarity in the

productions, that the discovered country was a part of those vast regions of Asia, comprehended under the general name of India. The name of India was given to it by Ferdinand and Isabella; and, after the error which gave rise to the opinion was detected, the name of West Indies has remained, and the aborigines are called Indians.

11. In 1,498, Columbus, on his third voyage, reached the continent, and landed in several places in the provinces of Paria and Cumana. But he was deprived of the honour of associating his name with this vast portion of the earth, being supplanted by Amerigo Vespucci, a native of Florence, who, in 1,499, went on a voyage to America, and who published an account of his adventures so ingeniously framed as to make it appear that he had the glory of first discovering the continent of the new world.

12. On the 20th of November, 1,497, Vasco de Gama, employed by the king of Portugal, first doubled the Cape of Good Hope, which opened a passage to the East Indies; and twenty-three years after the first discovery of America by Columbus, Magellan, a native of Portugal, in the service of Spain, penetrated into the Pacific ocean, by the strait which bears his name, situated at the southern extremity of the American continent.

SECTION II.

DISCOVERIES BY THE ENGLISH. SETTLEMENT OF VIRGINIA.

1. The English were the second people that discovered the new world, and the first that discovered the continent of America. On the 24th of June, 1,497, Giovanni Caboto, (or Cabot,) and his son Sebastian, who were commissioned by Henry VIII. to sail in quest of new countries, discovered a large island, to which they gave the name of Prima Vesta, or first seen; now called Newfoundland. From this, they steered to the north, in search of a passage to India; but finding no appearance of a passage, they tacked about, and ran as far as Florida, the island of Cuba, as he relates, being on his left.

2. On the accession of Elizabeth to the crown of England, a period commenced, highly auspicious to mercantile extension. The coast of Labrador was explored by Martin Frobisher, under her auspices, in the years 1,576 '7–'8; and sir Francis Drake, about this time, accomplished his celebrated voyage around the globe.

3. In 1,584, sir Walter Raleigh, a favourite at that time of the queen, despatched two small vessels, under the command of Philip Amidas and Arthur Barlow, which reached the coast of North Carolina on the 4th of July, making their passage in sixty-seven days by way of the Canary islands and the West Indies. On their return Amidas and Barlow gave a splendid description of the country; of its beauty, fertility, mildness of climate, and serenity of atmosphere; and Elizabeth gave to the country the name of Virginia, as a memorial that this happy land was discovered under a maiden queen.

4. In 1,585, sir Walter Raleigh fitted out a squadron of seven small vessels, with one hundred and eighty adventurers, which sailed from Plymouth, under the command of sir Richard Grenville. This colony was left on the island of Roanoke, under the care of captain Lane; but through bad management, turning all their attention to the

search for gold and silver, they were soon assailed by a two-fold calamity, the hostility of the natives and the prospect of famine. Sir Francis Drake, on his return from the West Indies, at the unanimous request of the colonists, carried them back to England, and thus ended the ill-conducted experiment, after a trial of nine months.

5. Early in the following year, three more vessels arrived at the same spot, with one hundred and fifty settlers. In about one month after, the daughter of captain White, who commanded the expedition, and the wife of Ananias Dare, one of his assistants, gave birth to the first English female child, which was named Virginia. Misfortune pursued this infant settlement. The threatened Spanish armada engrossing the attention of the parent country, the colony received no supplies, and the inhabitants perished miserably by famine, or by the hands of their surrounding enemies.

6. Sir Walter Raleigh being engaged in other ambitious undertakings, so vast and various as were beyond his power to accomplish, and becoming cold to the unprofitable scheme of effecting settlements in America, assigned his interest in that country to sir Thomas Smith and a company of merchants in London, in 1,596. These were satisfied for the present to pursue a petty traffic with the natives, and made no attempt to take possession of the soil.

7. But in the succeeding reign of James, who having concluded an amicable treaty with Spain, and terminated a tedious war, the period was more auspicious for settlements in America. The attention of the monarch was called to this subject by the efforts of distinguished geographers and men of science. James divided into districts of nearly equal extent, that portion of North America which stretches from the 34th to the 45th degree of north latitude, excepting the territory of any other christian prince or people already occupied; one called the First, or South Colony, the other the Second, or North Colony of Virginia. In 1,606, he authorized certain gentlemen, mostly residents of London, to settle in a limited district of the former; an equal extent of the latter he allotted to several gentlemen of Bristol, Plymouth, and other parts of the west of England. These grants laid the first foundation of states which in a few centuries were destined to become rivals to the mother country in wealth, in science, and in power. The supreme government of the colonies was vested in a council resident in England, to be nominated by the king: the subordinate jurisdiction in a council which was to reside in America, and also to be named by the crown, and act conformably to its instructions. Whatever was required for their sustenance, or for the support of commerce, he permitted to be shipped from England free of duty, during the space of seven years; and as an incitement to industry, granted them the liberty of trading with other nations, appropriating the duties to be laid on foreign traffic for twenty-one years, as a fund for their exclusive benefit.

8. A vessel of one hundred tons, and two barks, under the command of captain Newport, sailed with one hundred and five men, destined to remain in the country: among these was a Mr. Percy, brother of the earl of Northumberland, and several officers who had served with reputation in the preceding reign. The first land that was discovered was a promontory, the southern boundary of the Chesapeake, April, 1,607: this was named cape Henry, in honour of the prince of Wales. The spacious inlet was entered, and the expedition coasted the southern shore, and up a river sixty miles, called by the natives Powhatan, to which the English gave the name of James river, in honour of their

sovereign. Here a site was fixed for the infant settlement, which was named James Town.

9. Imprudent in their conduct towards the natives, this feeble society was early involved in war. Scarcity of provisions introduced diseases; and in a few months half their original number was swept away, and the remainder left sickly and dejected.

10. The government soon devolved on captain John Smith, who was originally one of the council appointed by the king, but who had unjustly been deprived of his authority by the colonists. This gentleman, who was emphatically the father of Virginia, was a native of Lincolnshire: he had distinguished himself in feats of courage and chivalry, particularly while engaged in the Hungarian army against the Turks. His undaunted temper, deeply tinctured with the romantic spirit of the times, was happily adapted to the present trying situation of the colony. Soon after he had been called as their leader, while hunting in the woods, he was attacked by two hundred Indians, who poured in upon him a continued flight of arrows. After performing wonderful feats, he sunk in the unequal contest, and was made a prisoner. Charmed by his arts and his valour, they released him from captivity. Afterwards he was beset by three hundred more of these ferocious people, pursued into a marsh, and, after he had thrown away his arms, which he could no longer use by reason of the cold, he was taken and carried in triumph to Powhatan, the principal chieftain of Virginia. Here the doom of death was pronounced upon him, and he was about to receive the fatal blow, when the favourite daughter of Powhatan, interposed in his behalf. This amiable child (not then thirteen years of age) not only prevented the execution of Smith by her entreaties and tears, but caused him to be set at liberty, and sent him, from time to time, seasonable presents of provisions.

11. The colony was now reduced to thirty-eight persons. Soon after, however, succours arrived from England, and an addition of one hundred new planters was added to their number. But the culture of the land, and other useful employments, were neglected, in the futile idea that gold had been discovered issuing from a small stream which emptied into James river. The effects of the delusion were soon severely felt in the prospect of approaching famine. In the hope of obtaining relief, Smith, in a small open boat, and with a feeble crew, went in search of aid from the Indians. In two different excursions, that occupied upwards of four months, he visited all the countries on the eastern and western shores of the Chesapeake bay, entering the principal creeks, and tracing the rivers as far as their falls, and obtained a supply of food for the suffering colony. In these tours, he sailed upwards of three thousand miles, amidst almost incredible hardships, and brought back with him an account of that large tract of country, now comprehended in the two states of Virginia and Maryland, so full and correct, that his map is the original from which all subsequent delineations have been formed until lately.

12. About this period, the old charter being found inconvenient and oppressive, a new charter was granted by James, by which the boundaries of the colony were enlarged; the council in Virginia was abolished, and the government vested entirely in one residing in London, the members of which were to be chosen by the proprietors, and these to nominate a governor, who was to reside in Virginia and carry their orders into execution. Lord Delaware was at first appointed to this office; but as this nobleman could not immediately leave England, the power was vested in sir Thomas Gates and sir George Somers,

who were despatched from England with five hundred planters. A violent hurricane separated the fleet on their way; and the ships without the officers only arrived at James Town. Presently every thing was reduced to a state of anarchy; captain Smith, at once the shield and the sword of the colony, being disabled by an accidental explosion of gun-powder, the wretchedness which followed is beyond description: and the arrival of Gates and Somers, who had been cast away on one of the Bermuda islands, although it saved the wretched survivors at James Town from immediate death, was unable to preserve them until the autumn. Nothing remained but to seek immediate assistance; and with only sixteen days' provision, the colony set sail, in hopes of reaching the banks of Newfoundland, and getting relief. But before they had arrived at the mouth of the river, they met lord Delaware, who brought a large supply of sustenance, new settlers, and every thing requisite either for cultivation or defence. Under the skilful administration of this nobleman, the colony began, once more, to assume a promising appearance. He was succeeded by sir Thomas Dale, who concluded a treaty of friendship with the Powhatans, one of the most powerful and warlike tribes of Virginia.

13. Pocahontas, the amiable female who had preserved the life of captain Smith, frequently visited the English settlements; and during this intercourse, she was betrayed on board a vessel, and there imprisoned. Her father, who loved her with the most ardent affection, was obliged to discontinue hostilities on such conditions as were dictated by his treacherous enemy. She was afterwards solicited by Mr. Rolfe, a respectable planter, in marriage. Powhatan consented, and the marriage was celebrated with extraordinary pomp. From this time, the most friendly intercourse subsisted between the colonists and the Indians. Rolfe and his wife went to England, where, by the introduction of captain Smith, Pocahontas was received by the court with the respect due to her birth; she was instructed in the christian religion, and publicly baptized. About returning to America, Pocahontas died at Gravesend; leaving one son, from whom are sprung some of the most respectable families of Virginia.

14. Hitherto no individual right of property in lands was established: all was holden and dealt out in common. But the governor, in 1,616, divided a considerable extent of land into small lots, and granted one of these for ever to each individual; from which period the colony rapidly extended. The culture of tobacco, since become the great staple of Virginia, was introduced; but the eager demand for the article in England caused for some time a scarcity of food in the colony.

15. About this time, a Dutch ship from the coast of Guinea, having sailed up James river, sold to the planters a part of her negroes; which race has been augmented in Virginia by successive importations and by natural increase, till it forms more than one third part of the population.

16. In 1,619, sir George Yeardley, the governor, impelled by that popular spirit of freedom which has ever been the characteristic of Americans, called the first general assembly which was held in Virginia. At this time eleven corporations sent representatives to the convention, which was permitted to assume legislative power, the natural privilege of man. The supreme authority was lodged partly in the governor, partly in a council of state appointed by the company, and in a general assembly, composed of representatives of the people. A natural effect of the happy change was an increase of agriculture.

The company extended the trade of the colony to Holland and other countries. This measure produced the first difference of sentiment between the colony and the parent state. Jealous at seeing a commodity, (tobacco,) for which the demand was daily increasing, conducted to foreign ports beyond its control, thereby causing a diminution of revenue, the latter endeavoured to check this colonial enterprise, without considering that the restraint was a breach of the sacred principles of justice.

17. The suspicion of the monarch James was soon roused, and the charter, by decision of the king's bench, was declared forfeit, and the company dissolved. Charles I. adopted all his father's maxims in respect to Virginia, which during a great part of his reign knew no other law than the royal will. But the colonists resisting, Charles yielded to the popular voice: he recalled Harvey, the obnoxious governor, and appointed sir William Berkeley, a man of great abilities, prudent, virtuous, and popular; whose influence was directed in finally restoring to the people much the same share in the government as they had enjoyed previously to the revocation of the charter.

18. After the execution of the king, and the establishment of the commonwealth under Cromwell, through the influence of the governor, the colonists continued to adhere to their loyalty to the king. In 1,651, the English commonwealth took vigorous measures to reduce the Virginians to obedience. A numerous squadron, with land forces, was despatched for this purpose. Berkeley resisted, but was unable to maintain an unequal contest, and was soon defeated. The people were, however, allowed to retain the privileges of citizens; but Berkeley retired as a private citizen. Cromwell's parliament framed acts prohibiting all intercourse between the colonies and foreign states, and allowing no trade but in English ships. On the death of Mathews, the last governor appointed by Cromwell, the Virginians burst out in new violence. They called sir William Berkeley from his retirement, boldly erected the royal standard, and proclaimed Charles II., son of their late monarch, to be their lawful sovereign. Charles was, however, soon placed on the throne, and the Virginians were thus saved from the chastisement to which they were exposed by their previous declaration in his favour. But the new king and parliament rewarded their fidelity by increasing the restraints upon colonial commerce!

19. The number of inhabitants in Virginia in 1,688, exceeded sixty thousand, and its population in the previous twenty-eight years was doubled. In 1,691, the college of William and Mary was founded. To aid in its erection and support, the sovereigns whose name it bears, gave nearly two thousand pounds out of their private purse, and granted twenty thousand acres of land, and a duty on tobacco, for its further encouragement.

SECTION III.

SETTLEMENT OF MASSACHUSETTS, RHODE ISLAND, CONNECTICUT, NEW HAMPSHIRE, MAINE, MARYLAND, NORTH AND SOUTH CAROLINA, NEW YORK, NEW JERSEY, PENNSYLVANIA, DELAWARE, AND GEORGIA.

1. The partition of the great territory of Virginia into North and South colonies has already been mentioned. Still more feeble were

the operations of the Plymouth company, to whom was assigned the conduct of the northern division, although animated by the zeal of sir John Popham, chief justice of England, sir Ferdinando Gorges, and other public spirited gentlemen of the west.

2. In the year 1,607, the same in which James Town was founded, a small settlement was commenced on the river Sagadahoc, now called the Kennebec; but this was soon abandoned. Some fishing vessels visited Cape Cod several times; among them, one commanded by captain Smith, who returned with a high-wrought description of the coast and country: exhibiting a map of the bays, harbours, &c., on which he inscribed "New England;" the prince of Wales, delighted with the representations of Smith, immediately confirmed the name.

3. To the operations of religion, rather than to the desire of pecuniary emolument, are the various settlements of New England indebted for their origin. The sacred rights of conscience and of private judgment were not then properly understood; nor was the charity and mutual forbearance taught christians by their divine master practised in any country. Every church employed the hand of power in supporting its own doctrines, and opposing the tenets of another. In reforming the rituals and exterior symbols of the church of England, Elizabeth, lest by too wide a departure from the Romish church she might alarm the populace, had allowed many of the ancient ceremonies to remain unaltered. With several of these a large number of her subjects being dissatisfied, they wished to address their Creator according to their own opinions, but were subjected to very rigorous penalties. Those who dissented from the established church obtained the general name of *Puritans*, a term applied to them because they wished for a *purer* form of discipline and worship. Among the most popular and strenuous declaimers against the established church were the Brownists, a sect formed about 1,581, by Robert Brown, who afterwards renounced his principles of separation, and took orders in the church against which he had so loudly declaimed. The Rev. John Robinson, the father of the first settlement of New England, is said to have been a follower of Brown, but afterwards renounced the principles of the Brownists, and became the founder of a new sect, denominated *Independents*.* Mr. Robinson affirmed that all christian congregations were so many independent religious societies, that had a right to be governed by their own laws, independent of any foreign jurisdiction. Being persecuted in England, he, with many others embracing his opinions, removed to Holland, where they formed churches upon their own principles. Remaining there some years, the society were desirous to remove to some other place: they turned their thoughts to America, and applied to James, who though he refused to give them any positive assurance of toleration, seems to have intimated some promise of passive indulgence.

* By several respectable historians of this country, the Independents have been connected with the Brownists, between the opinions and practices of whom was a wide difference. The Independents excelled the Brownists in the moderation of their sentiments, and in the order of their discipline. They possessed candour and charity, believing that true religion and solid piety might flourish in those communities under the jurisdiction of bishops, or the governments of synods or presbyteries. They approved of a regular ministry. While the Brownists allowed promiscuously all ranks and orders of men to teach in public, the Independents required a proper examination of the capacity and talents of their teachers.

4. They readily procured a tract of land from the Plymouth company. One hundred and twenty persons sailed from Plymouth in 1,620, their destination being Hudson's river: by some treachery of the Dutch, who then contemplated and afterwards effected a settlement at that place, they were carried to the north, and landed on cape Cod, the eleventh of November of that year. They chose for their residence a place called by the Indians Patuxet, to which they gave the name of New Plymouth. Before spring, half their number were cut off by famine or disease. In a few days after they landed, captain Standish was engaged in skirmishing with the Indians; and the many disasters which followed, together with the implacable hostility of the Indians, which always has subsisted, are perhaps more owing to the imprudence of the first settlers, than to the bad disposition of the natives.

5. This colony, like that of Virginia, at first held their goods and property in common; and their progress was retarded as well by this circumstance, as by the impulse of imaginary inspiration, which regulated all their actions. At the end of ten years, these well meaning people, when they became incorporated with their more powerful neighbours of Massachusetts bay, did not exceed three hundred.

6. In the year 1,629, Mr. White, a non-conformist minister at Dorchester, having formed an association, purchased from the Plymouth company a tract extending in length from three miles north of Merrimack river to three miles south of Charles river, and in breadth from the Atlantic to the Southern ocean; and obtained a charter from Charles, similar to that given to the two Virginian companies by James. Five ships were fitted out, on board of which were embarked upwards of three hundred souls, amongst whom were several eminent non-conforming ministers. On their arrival, they found the remnant of a small party that had left England the preceding year, under the conduct of Mr. Endicott, who had been appointed by his companions deputy governor. They were settled at a place called by the Indians Naumkeag, to which he had given the scripture name of Salem. The new colonists immediately formed a church, elected a pastor, teacher, and elder, disregarding the intentions of the king. They disencumbered their public worship of every superfluous ceremony, and reduced it to the lowest standard of calvinistic simplicity.

But much as we respect that noble spirit which enabled them to part with their native soil, we must condemn the persecuting spirit of the colonists themselves. Some of the colonists, retaining a high veneration for the ritual of the church of England, refused to join the colonial state establishment, and assembled separately to worship: Endicott called before him two of the principal offenders, expelled them from the colony, and sent them home in the first ships returning to England.

7. The government of the colony was soon transferred to America, and vested in those members of the company who should reside there. John Winthrop was appointed governor, and Thomas Dudley deputy governor, with eighteen assistants. In the course of the next year, 1,630, fifteen hundred persons arrived in Massachusetts from England, amongst whom were several distinguished families, some of them in easy, and others in affluent circumstances; and Boston, Charlestown, Dorchester, Roxbury, and other towns, were settled.

8. The first general court, held at Charlestown, ventured to deviate from their charter in a matter of great moment: a law was passed, declaring that none should be freemen, or be entitled to any share in the government, except those who had been received as members of

the church. The fanatical spirit continued to increase. A minister of Salem, named Roger Williams, having conceived an aversion to the cross of St. George, a symbol in the English standard, declaimed against it with great vehemence, as a relic of superstition; and Endicott, in a transport of zeal, cut out the cross from the ensign displayed before the governor's gate. This frivolous matter divided the colony; but the matter was at length compromised by retaining the cross in the ensigns of forts and vessels, and erasing it from the colours of the militia.

9. In 1,636, Williams was banished from Salem; and, accompanied by many of his hearers, the exile went south, purchased a tract of land of the natives, to which he gave the name of Providence; and a Mr. Coddington, with seventy-six others, exiled from Boston, bought a fertile island on Narraganset bay, that acquired the name of Rhode-Island. Mr. Coddington embraced the sentiments of the Quakers, or Friends; he received a charter from the British parliament, in which it was ordered, that "none were ever to be molested for any difference of opinion in religious matters:" yet, the very first assembly convened under this authority, excluded Roman catholics from voting at elections, and from every office in the government!

10. To similar causes the state of Connecticut is indebted for its origin. Mr. Hooker, a favourite minister of Massachusetts, with about one hundred families, after a fatiguing march, settled on the western side of the river Connecticut, and laid the foundation of Hartford, Springfield, and Weathersfield. Their right to this territory was disputed by the Dutch, who had settled at the mouth of the Hudson, and by the lords Say-and-Seal and Brook, who had commenced the settlement called Say-Brook. The Dutch were soon expelled; and the others uniting with the colony, all were incorporated by a royal charter.

11. New-Hampshire was first settled in the spring of 1,623, under the patronage of sir Ferdinando Gorges, captain John Mason, and several others, who sent over David Thompson, a Scot, Edward and William Hilton, and a number of people, furnished with the requisite supplies. One company landed at a place called Little Harbour; the others settled at Dover. Mr. Wheelwright, a clergyman banished from Massachusetts, founded Exeter, in 1,638.

12. Maine was not permanently settled until 1,635. Gorges obtained a grant of this territory, which remained under its own government until 1,652, when its soil and jurisdiction, as far as the middle of Casco bay, was claimed by Massachusetts.

13. The mutual hostility of the English and Indians commenced with the first settlement; but it was not until the year 1,637, that a systematic warfare was begun. The Pequods, who brought into the field more than a thousand warriors, were exterminated in a few months by the combined troops of Massachusetts and Connecticut. In the night, the Pequods were attacked, near the head of Mistic, by the Connecticut troops and Narraganset Indians, commanded by captain Mason: in a few moments, five or six hundred lay gasping in their blood, or were silent in the arms of death. "The darkness, of the forest," observes a New-England author, "the blaze of the dwellings, the ghastly looks of the dead, the groans of the dying, the shrieks of the women and children, the yells of the friendly savages, presented a scene of sublimity and terror indescribably dreadful."

14. In 1,643, an alliance for mutual defence was formed between the New-England colonies, excepting Rhode-Island, which Massachusetts

was unwilling to admit. This alliance continued until the charters were annulled by James the second.

15. Up to 1,638, twenty-one thousand British subjects had settled in New-England; and the country had begun to extend the fisheries, and to export corn and lumber to the West Indies. In 1,656, the persecution of the Quakers was at its height. A number of these inoffensive people having arrived in the Massachusetts colony, from England and Barbadoes, and given offence to the clergy of the established church by the novelty of their religion, were imprisoned, and by the first opportunity sent away. A law was passed, which prohibited masters of ships from bringing Quakers into Massachusetts, and themselves from coming there, under a graduated penalty, rising, in case of a return from banishment, to death. In consequence, several were hanged! These proceedings are still the more reprehensible and remarkable, when contrasted with a previous declaration of their government, which tendered "hospitality and succour to all christian strangers, flying from wars, famine, or the tyranny of persecution." The anabaptists were also persecuted; many were disfranchised, and some were banished.

16. On the accession of James II., several of the New-England colonies were deprived of their charters; but these, with various unimportant modifications, were restored after the revolution. Sir William Phipps, a native of Maine, who rose to wealth and power in a manner the most extraordinary, was the first governor of Massachusetts under the new charter. With a force of seven hundred men, he wrested from the French, L'Acadie, now called Nova Scotia. He afterwards made an unsuccessful attempt on Quebec, with the loss of one thousand men. The new charter, whilst it curtailed the liberties, extended the territory of Massachusetts; to it were now annexed New Plymouth, Maine, and Nova Scotia, with all the country between the latter and the river St. Lawrence; also Elizabeth islands, Martha's Vineyard, and Nantucket. The people, however, had just reason to complain that they no longer chose their governor, under whose control was the militia, and who levied taxes without their consent, and tried capital offences.

17. About this time the pillars of society were shaken to the foundation, in and about Salem, by imaginary witchcraft. The delusion commenced at Salem village, now Danvers, in the family of Rev. Samuel Paris. Two young girls, one a daughter of Mr. Paris, aged 9; the other a niece, aged 11, were affected with singular nervous disorders, which, as they baffled the skill of the physician, were thought to proceed from an "evil hand." The children were believed by the neighbours to be bewitched, and the belief, sanctioned by the opinion of the physician, became general throughout the vicinity. The more the girls were noticed and pitied, the more singular and extravagant was their conduct. Upon the advice of the neighbouring ministers, two or three private fasts were first kept; afterwards a public one in the village and other congregations; and finally, the general court appointed a fast through the colony. This course gave the occurrences a solemn aspect, and probably contributed to the public credulity, till the supposed witchcraft had extended throughout a great part of the county of Essex. The infatuation prevailed from March to October, 1,692, during which time twenty persons, men and women, were executed. It was then that suspicion roused from its lethargy; condemnation ceased; the accusers were silent; those under sentence were reprieved, and afterwards pardoned.

18. In the years 1,627 and '38, '63 and '70, New-England experienced violent earthquakes. In the year 1,638, Harvard college, near Boston, the oldest seminary of learning in the United States, was founded. Four hundred pounds were voted to it by the general court; and this sum was nearly doubled by a bequest from Mr. John Harvard, a minister of Charlestown. This institution is now the most richly endowed of all the American colleges. Yale college, at New-Haven, was founded in 1,701, ten years after that of William and Mary, in Virginia; and Dartmouth college, in New-Hampshire, was founded in 1,769. The first printing press established in the British colonies was in 1,639, at Cambridge, superintended by Stephen Daye; but erected chiefly at the expense of Mr. Glover, an English clergyman, who died on his passage to America.

19. Maryland, the first colony that, from its beginning, was directly governed as a province of the British empire, was founded by sir George Calvert, baron of Baltimore, in Ireland; a Roman catholic nobleman, born in England. He first went to Virginia; but meeting an unwelcome reception there, on account of his religion, he fixed his attention to the lands north of the Potomac, and obtained a grant of them from Charles I. This country was called Maryland, in honour of the queen, Henrietta Maria. The religious toleration established by the charter, the first draft of which is said to have been written by sir George himself, is honourable to his memory. The grant was given to his eldest son, Cecilius, who succeeded to his titles; but Leonard Calvert, brother to Cecilius, was the first governor, and made the first stand, at an island in the Potomac, which he named St. Clements, in 1,633. He made several purchases of the Indians, with whom he cultivated a constant friendship, as well on the Potomac, as on both shores of the Chesapeake. Never did any people enjoy more happiness than the inhabitants of Maryland. Whilst Virginia harassed all who dissented from the English church, and the northern colonies all who dissented from the puritans, the Roman catholics of Maryland, a sect who in the old world never professed the doctrine of toleration, received and protected their brethren of every christian church, and its population was rapidly increased.

20. About the middle of the seventeenth century, some emigrants, chiefly from Virginia, began a settlement in the county of Albemarle; and soon afterwards, another establishment was commenced at cape Fear, by adventurers from Massachusetts. These were held together by the laws of nature, without any written code, for some time. But Charles II. compelled the colonists to become subservient to his rule, and granted to lord Clarendon and others the tract of land which now composes North and South Carolina: perfect freedom in religion was granted in the charter. The first settlement was placed under the command of sir William Berkeley, governor of Virginia, who assigned his authority to Mr. Drummond. In 1,761, the proprietors extended their settlements to the banks of Ashley and Cooper rivers, where Charleston now stands; and eventually this became the separate state of South Carolina. The culture of cotton commenced here in 1,700, and that of indigo in 1,748.

21. New-York was first settled by the Dutch, and was by them held for about half a century. It was, however, claimed by England as the first discoverer. Peter Stuyvesant, the third and last Dutch governor, began his administration in 1,647, and was distinguished no less for his fidelity than his vigilance. In 1,664 the colony surrendered to the English; and the whole territory now comprising New-York,

New-Jersey, together with Pennsylvania, Delaware, and a part of Connecticut, was assigned by Charles II. to his brother the duke of York. The Dutch inhabitants remained; Stuyvesant retained his estate, and died in the colony. The country was governed by the duke's officers until 1,688; when representatives of the people were allowed a voice in the legislature.

22. In 1,664, the duke of York sold that part of his grant now called New-Jersey to lord Berkeley and sir George Carteret. It had previously been settled by Hollanders, Swedes, and Danes. The county of Bergen was the first inhabited; and very soon the towns of Elizabeth, Newark, Middleton, and Shrewsbury were settled. The college, originally established at Newark, was, in 1,748, finally fixed at Princeton: its chief benefactor was governor Belcher. Among the governors of New-Jersey was the celebrated Barclay, author of the Apology for the Quakers, of which sect a large number had established themselves there.

23. Pennsylvania was founded by William Penn, son of a distinguished admiral of the same name. From principle this excellent man joined the Quakers, then an obscure and persecuted sect. As one of the members, and a preacher, Penn was repeatedly imprisoned; but he plead his own cause with great boldness, and procured his own acquittal from an independent jury, who with himself were imprisoned until an unjust penalty was paid. In 1,681, he purchased of Charles the tract now called Pennsylvania, for an acquittance of sixteen thousand pounds due to his father; and soon after, he obtained from the duke of York a conveyance of the town of New-Castle, with the country which now forms the state of Delaware. The first colony, who were chiefly of his own sect, began their settlement above the confluence of the Schuylkill and Delaware rivers. In August, 1,682, this amiable man embarked, with about two thousand emigrants, and in October, arrived in the Delaware. Besides his own people, he was aided in the first settlement by Swedes, Dutch, Finlanders, and other English. The first legislative assembly was held at Chester, at that time called Upland. Among the first laws was one which declared "that none, acknowledging one God, and living peaceably in society, should be molested for his opinions or his practice: nor be compelled to frequent or maintain any ministry whatever." Philadelphia was begun in 1,683; and in 1,699, it contained seven hundred houses, and about four thousand inhabitants. During the first seventy years of this settlement, no instance occurred of the Indians killing unarmed people. The wise and good man, Penn, made every exertion and sacrifice to promote the peace and prosperity of his favourite colony; and between the persecution he had to encounter in England and the difficulties in Pennsylvania, his life was a continued scene of vexation—his private fortune was materially injured by the advances he made—he was harassed by his creditors, and obliged to undergo a temporary deprivation of his personal liberty. He died in London, in 1,718, leaving an inheritance to his children, ultimately of immense value, which they enjoyed until the revolution, when it was assigned to the commonwealth for an equitable sum of money. In the interval between 1,730 and the war of the revolution, in this state, there was a great influx of emigrants, principally from Germany and Ireland; and these people early brought the useful arts and manufactures into Pennsylvania. To the Germans, she is indebted for the spinning and weaving of linen and woollen cloths; to the Irish, for various trades indispensable to useful agriculture.

24. Delaware was first settled in 1,627, by the Swedes and Finlanders, and the colony bore the name of New-Sweden. It was afterwards conquered by the Dutch from New-York, and remained subservient to that colony until it passed into the hands of the English.

25. Georgia was the last settled of the thirteen colonies that revolted from Britain. It received its name from George II. In November, 1,732, one hundred and sixteen persons embarked at Gravesend, under general Oglethorpe; and early in the ensuing year arrived at Charleston. From this port they proceeded to their destined territory, and laid the foundation of Savannah. The Spaniards laid claim to this territory, and made extensive preparations to attack it. But through the finesse of Oglethorpe in practising an innocent deception, their plans were defeated. For many years, this settlement languished from a variety of causes. General Oglethorpe was distinguished as a soldier, a statesman, and a philanthropist. At the beginning of the American revolution, he was offered the command of the British army in America, but this from principle he declined. After the contest was decided, he died at the age of ninety-seven years, being the oldest general in the British service.

SECTION IV.

WAR WITH FRANCE, AND CONQUEST OF CANADA. DISPUTES WITH GREAT BRITAIN, AND WAR OF THE REVOLUTION.

1. Nearly coeval with the first English settlement at James Town, in Virginia, was the establishment of a French colony at Quebec, on the great river St. Lawrence. The question of boundary between England and France, had long been a subject of unavailing negotiation. France, beside having Canada in the north, had also discovered and settled on Mississippi in the south; and in 1,753, she strove, by a military chain, the links of which were to be formed by outposts stretching along the Ohio and the lakes, to connect these two extremities, and thus restrain the British colonists to a small territory on the Atlantic ocean, if not entirely expel them from the country. The question of jurisdiction remained to be decided by the sword. Repeated complaints of violence having come to the ears of the governor of Virginia, he determined to send a suitable person to the French commandant at fort Du Quesne, (now Pittsburgh,) demanding the reason of his hostile proceedings, and insisting that he should evacuate the fort which he had recently erected. For this arduous undertaking, George Washington, a major of militia, then little more than twenty-one years of age, offered his services. The execution of this task seems to have been accomplished with all that prudence and courage which were so eminently displayed by this hero in after life. At imminent peril, being waylaid and fired at by Indians, he not only faithfully accomplished the errand on which he had been sent, but gained extensive information of the distances and bearings of places, and of the number, size, and strength of nearly all the enemy's fortresses.

2. The reply of the French commander brought matters to a crisis; and in 1,754, the Virginian assembly organized a regiment, to support

the claims of the English over the territory in dispute : of this regiment a Mr. Fry was appointed colonel, and the young Washington lieutenant colonel. Colonel Fry dying, the command of the whole devolved on Washington. The French having been strongly reinforced, Washington was obliged to fall back, was attacked in works which he had not time to complete, and, after a brave defence, was obliged to capitulate ; the enemy allowing him to march out with the honours of war, and to retire unmolested to the inhabited parts of Virginia.

3. The next year, 1,755, general Braddock was sent from Europe to Virginia, with two regiments, where he was joined by as many provincials as made his force amount to twenty-two hundred. Braddock was a brave man, but lacked that courtesy which could conciliate the Americans, and that modesty which should profit from the knowledge of those who better knew the ground over which he was to pass, and the mode of French and Indian warfare, than himself. He pushed on incautiously, until, within a few miles of fort Du Quesne, he fell into an ambush of French and Indians. In a short time, Washington, who acted as aid to Braddock, and whose duty called him to be on horseback, was the only person mounted who was left alive, or not wounded. The van of the army was forced back, and the whole thrown into confusion. The slaughter was dreadful. Braddock was mortally wounded. What was remarkable, the provincial troops preserved their order, and covered the retreat under Washington ; while the regulars broke their ranks, and could not be rallied.

4. Three successive campaigns procured nothing but expense and disappointment to the English. With an inferior force, the French had succeeded in every campaign ; and gloomy apprehensions were entertained as to the destiny of the British colonies. But in 1,756, a change of ministry in England took place. William Pitt was placed at the helm. To despair, succeeded hope ; and to hope, victory. Supplies were granted with liberality, and given without reluctance ; soldiers enlisted freely, and fought with enthusiasm. In a short time, the French were dispossessed, not only of all the territories in dispute, but of Quebec, and her ancient province of Canada ; so that all which remained to her of her numerous settlements in North America, was New-Orleans, with a few plantations on the Mississippi. Full of youth and spirit, the gallant general Wolfe, who led the European and colonial troops to victory, fell before the walls of Quebec, in the moment of success. In 1,762, hostilities having raged nearly eight years, a general peace was concluded : France ceded Canada, and Spain relinquished, as the price of recovering Havana, which had been taken by the British, both the Floridas to Great Britain.

5. Although the American colonies had principally contributed to the great extension of the power of Great Britain, co-operating with the vigilance of more than four hundred cruisers on the sea, and furnishing more than twenty-four thousand soldiers ; yet the latter regarded her plantations as mere instruments in her hands. On the contrary, the high sentiments of liberty and independence nurtured in the colonies from their local situation and habits, were increased by the removal of hostile neighbours. Ideas favourable to independence increased ; and whilst combustible materials were collecting in the new world, a brand to enkindle them was preparing in the old.

6. In 1,765, under the auspices of the minister, George Grenville, the obnoxious stamp act passed in the British parliament ; by which the instruments of writing in daily use were to be null and void, unless

executed on paper or parchment stamped with a specific duty: law documents, leases, deeds, and indentures, newspapers and advertisements, almanacs and pamphlets, executed and printed in America—all must contribute to the British treasury. The bill did not pass without the decided opposition of patriots in the British legislature, who foretold the result, and who declared that, the colonies being planted by British oppression, and having assisted the mother country, that the mother had no claim on the child to derive from it a revenue. The bill did not take effect until seven months after its passage; thus giving the colonists an opportunity of leisurely examining and viewing the subject on every side. They were struck with silent consternation; but the voice of opposition was first heard in Virginia. Patrick Henry, on the 20th of May, brought into the house of burgesses in that colony a number of resolutions, which were adopted, and which concluded with declaring, "That every individual, who, by speaking or acting, should assert or maintain, that any person or body of men, except the general assembly of the province, had any right to impose taxation there, should be deemed an enemy to his majesty's colony." These resolutions were immediately disseminated through the other provinces; the tongues and the pens of well-informed men laboured in the holy cause—the fire of liberty blazed forth from the press. The assembly of Massachusetts passed a resolution in favour of a continental congress, and fixed a day for its meeting at New-York, in October. The other colonies, with the exception of four, accepted this invitation, and assembled at the appointed place. Here they agreed on a declaration of their rights. There was, however, a considerable degree of timidity evinced in this congress. The boldest and most impressive arguments were offered by James Otis of Massachusetts.

7. The time arrived for the act to take effect; and the aversion to it was expressed in still stronger terms throughout the colonies. By a common consent, its provisions were disregarded, and business was conducted, in defiance of the parliament, as if no stamp act was in existence: associations were formed against importing British manufactures until the law should be repealed; and lawyers were prohibited from instituting any action for money due to any inhabitant of England. The spirited conduct of the colonists, affecting the interests of the British merchants, had the desired effect. Warm discussions took place in the British parliament, and the ablest speakers in both houses denied the justice of taxing the colonies. The opposition could not be withstood; and in March, 1,766, the law was repealed.

8. Simultaneously, however, with repealing this act, the British parliament passed another, declaring that the British parliament had a right to make laws binding the colonies in all cases whatever; and soon after another bill was passed, imposing in the colonies duties on glass, paper, painters' colours, and tea. The fire of opposition was now rekindled with additional ardour, by the same principle, exhibited in its new form. The best talents throughout the colonies were engaged, in the public prints and in pamphlets, to work up the public feeling against the arbitrary measures of the British parliament. New associations were formed to suspend the importation of British manufactures. The Massachusetts assembly, having passed resolutions to this effect, drew forth the marked displeasure of the crown; and, on their refusal to cancel their resolutions, were dissolved.

9. In 1,768, Mr. Hancock's sloop Liberty was seized at Boston, for not entering all the wines she had brought from Madeira: this inflamed the populace to a high degree of resentment. Soon afterwards, two

British regiments, and some armed vessels, were sent to Boston, to assist the revenue officers. The parliament, encouraged by the expectation of quelling the refractory by their arms, continued to dissolve the opposing assemblies; but the colonies remained firm in their purposes.

10. Lord North succeeded the duke of Grafton, as British premier in 1,770; and the act was repealed imposing a duty on glass, paper, and painters' colours; but that on tea was retained. Some slight prospect of allaying the difficulties succeeded. But on the second of March an affray took place in Boston, between a private soldier and an inhabitant. This was succeeded, in a few days afterwards, by a mob meeting a party of British soldiers under arms, who were dared to fire, and who at length did fire, and killed five persons. The captain who commanded, and the troops who fired, were afterwards tried for murder, and acquitted.

11. Things continued in this mode of partial irritation until 1,773, when the British East India company were authorized to export their tea to all places, free of duty. As this would enable them to sell that article cheaper in America, with the government exactions, than they had before sold it without them, it was confidently calculated that teas might be extensively disposed of in the colonies. Large consignments of tea were sent to various parts, and agents appointed for its disposal. The consignees, in several places, were compelled to relinquish their appointments. Popular vengeance prevented the landing at New-York or Philadelphia. In Boston it was otherwise. The tea for the supply of that port was consigned to the sons and particular friends of governor Hutchinson. The tea was landed by the strenuous exertions of the governor and consignees. But soon a party of men, dressed as Indians, boarded the tea ships, broke open the cargoes, and threw the contents into the sea. Enraged against the people of Boston, the parliament resolved to take legislative vengeance on that devoted town. Disregarding the forms of the British constitution, by which none are to be punished without trial, they passed a bill, closing, in a commercial sense, its port: its custom house and trade were soon after removed to Salem. The charter of the colony was new modelled, so that the whole executive government was taken from the people, and the nomination to all important offices vested in the crown; and it was enacted, that if any person was indicted for any capital offence committed in aiding the magistrates, he might be sent to Great Britain or another colony for trial. Property, liberty, and life, were thus subject to ministerial caprice. The parliament went still further, and passed an act extending the boundaries of Canada, southward to the Ohio, westward, to the Mississippi, and northward, to the borders of the Hudson's bay company, assimilating its laws with the French, which dispensed with the trial by jury, and rendering the inhabitants passive agents in the hands of power.

12. The flame was now kindled in every breast; and associations were formed, and committees of correspondence were established, which produced a unity of thought and action throughout the colonies. General Gage, the British commander-in-chief, arrived in Boston, in 1,774, with more troops, with the avowed intention of dragooning the refractory Bostonians into compliance. A general sympathy was excited for the suffering inhabitants of Boston: addresses poured in from all quarters; Marblehead offered to the Boston merchants the use of her wharves, and Salem refused to adopt the trade, the offer of which had been proffered as a temptation to her cupidity. Affairs

rapidly approached a crisis. The preparations for offence and defence, induced general Gage to fortify Boston, and to seize on the powder lodged at the arsenal at Charlestown.

13. In September, deputies from most of the colonies met in congress, at Philadelphia. These delegates approved of the conduct of the people of Massachusetts; wrote a letter to general Gage; published a declaration of rights; formed an association not to import or use British goods; sent a petition to the king of Great Britain; an address to the inhabitants of that kingdom; another to the inhabitants of Canada; and another to the inhabitants of the colonies. In the beginning of the next year, (1,775,) was passed the *fishery bill*, by which the northern colonies were forbidden to fish on the banks of Newfoundland for a certain time. This bore hard upon the commerce of these colonies, which was in a great measure supported by the fishery.

14. Soon after, another bill was passed, which restrained the trade of the middle and southern colonies to Great Britain, Ireland, and the West Indies, except under certain conditions. These repeated acts of oppression on the part of Great Britain, alienated the affections of America from her parent and sovereign, and produced a combined opposition to the whole system of taxation. Preparations began to be made to oppose by force the execution of these acts of parliament. The militia of the country were trained to the use of arms—great encouragement was given to the manufacture of gunpowder, and measures were taken to obtain all kinds of military stores.

15. In February, colonel Leslie was sent with a detachment of troops from Boston, to take possession of some cannon at Salem. But the people had intelligence of the design—took up the drawbridge in that town, and prevented the troops from passing, until the cannon were secured; so that the expedition failed. In April, colonel Smith and major Pitcairn were sent with a body of troops, to destroy the military stores which had been collected at Concord, about twenty miles from Boston. At Lexington the militia were collected on a green, to oppose the incursion of the British forces. These were fired upon by the British troops, and eight men killed on the spot.

16. The militia were dispersed, and the troops proceeded to Concord; where they destroyed a few stores. But on their return they were incessantly harassed by the Americans, who, inflamed with just resentment, fired upon them from houses and fences, and pursued them to Boston. Here was spilt the *first blood* in the war which severed America from the British empire. *Lexington* opened the first scene of the great drama, which, in its progress, exhibited the most illustrious characters and events, and closed with a revolution, equally glorious for the actors, and important in its consequences to the human race. This battle roused all America. The militia collected from all quarters, and Boston was in a few days besieged by twenty thousand men. A stop was put to all intercourse between the town and country, and the inhabitants were reduced to great want of provisions. General Gage promised to let the people depart, if they would deliver up their arms. The people complied; but when the general had obtained their arms, the perfidious wretch refused to let the people go.

17. In the mean time, a small number of men, under the command of colonel Allen and colonel Easton, without any public orders, surprised and took the British garrison at Ticonderoga, without the loss of a man.

18. In June following, our troops attempted to fortify Bunker's hill,

which lies in Charlestown, and but a mile and a half from Boston. They had, during the night, thrown up a small breastwork, which sheltered them from the fire of the British cannon. But the next morning, the British army was sent to drive them from the hill; and landing under cover of their cannon, they set fire to Charlestown, which was consumed, and marched to attack our troops in the entrenchments. A severe engagement ensued, in which the British suffered a very great loss, both of officers and privates. They were repulsed at first, and thrown into disorder; but they finally carried the fortification with the point of the bayonet. The Americans suffered a small loss compared with the British; but the death of the brave general Warren, who fell in the action, a martyr to the cause of his country, was severely felt and universally lamented.

19. About this time, the continental congress appointed George Washington, Esq. to the chief command of the continental army. This gentleman had been a distinguished and successful officer in the preceding war, and he seemed destined by Heaven to be the saviour of his country. He accepted the appointment with a diffidence which was a proof of his prudence and his greatness. He refused any pay for eight years' laborious and arduous service; and by his matchless skill, fortitude, and perseverance, conducted America, through indescribable difficulties, to independence and peace. While true merit is esteemed, or virtue honoured, mankind will never cease to revere the memory of this hero; and while gratitude remains in the human breast, the praises of Washington shall dwell on every American tongue.

20. General Washington, with other officers appointed by congress, arrived at Cambridge, and took command of the American army in July. From this time, the affairs of America began to assume the appearance of a regular and general opposition to the forces of Great Britain.

21. In autumn, a body of troops, under the command of general Montgomery, besieged and took the garrison at St. John's, which commands the entrance into Canada. The prisoners amounted to about seven hundred. General Montgomery pursued his success, and took Montreal, and designed to push his victories to Quebec. A body of troops, commanded by Arnold, was ordered to march to Canada, by the river Kennebec, and through the wilderness. After suffering every hardship, and the most distressing hunger, they arrived in Canada, and were joined by general Montgomery, before Quebec. This city, which was commanded by governor Carleton, was immediately besieged. But there being little hope of taking the town by a siege, it was determined to storm it. The attack was made on the last day of December, but proved unsuccessful, and fatal to the brave general, who, with his aid, was killed in attempting to scale the walls. Of the three divisions which attacked the town, one only entered, and that was compelled to surrender to superior force. After this defeat, Arnold, who now commanded the troops, continued some months before Quebec, although his troops suffered incredibly by cold and sickness. But the next spring the Americans were obliged to retreat from Canada.

22. About this time the large and flourishing town of Norfolk, in Virginia, was wantonly burnt by order of lord Dunmore, the royal governor. General Gage went to England in September, and was succeeded in command by general Howe. Falmouth, a considerable town in the province of Maine, in Massachusetts, shared the fate of Norfolk; being laid in ashes by order of the British admiral.

23. The British king entered into treaties with some of the German princes for about seventeen thousand men, who were to be sent to America the next year, to assist in subduing the colonies. The British parliament also passed an act, forbidding all intercourse with America; and while they repealed the Boston port and fishery bills, they declared all American property on the high seas forfeited to the captors. This act induced congress to change the mode of carrying on the war; and measures were taken to annoy the enemy in Boston. For this purpose, batteries were opened on several hills, from whence shot and bombs were thrown into the town. But the batteries which were opened on Dorchester point had the best effect, and soon obliged general Howe to abandon the town. In March, 1,776, the British troops embarked for Halifax, and general Washington entered the town in triumph.

24. In the ensuing summer, a small squadron of ships, under the command of sir Peter Parker, and a body of troops under the generals Clinton and Cornwallis, attempted to take Charleston, the capital of South Carolina. The ships made a violent attack upon the fort on Sullivan's island, but were repulsed with great loss, and the expedition was abandoned.

25. In July, congress published their declaration of independence, which for ever separated America from Great Britain. This great event took place two hundred and eighty-four years after the first discovery of America by Columbus—one hundred and seventy from the first effectual settlements in Virginia—and one hundred and fifty-six from the first settlement of Plymouth in Massachusetts, which were the earliest English settlements in America. Just after this declaration, general Howe, with a powerful force, arrived near New-York, and landed the troops upon Staten Island. General Washington was in New-York, with about thirteen thousand men, encamped either in the city, or in the neighbouring fortifications.

26. The operations of the British began by the action on Long Island, in the month of August. The Americans were defeated, and general Sullivan and lord Sterling, with a large body of men, were made prisoners. The night after the engagement, a retreat was ordered, and executed with such silence, that the Americans left the island without alarming their enemies, and without loss. In September, the city of New-York was abandoned by the American army, and taken by the British.

27. In November, fort Washington, on York Island, was taken, and more than two thousand men made prisoners. Fort Lee, opposite to fort Washington, on the Jersey shore, was soon after taken, but the garrison escaped. About the same time, general Clinton was sent, with a body of troops, to take possession of Rhode Island, and succeeded. In addition to all these losses and defeats, the American army suffered by desertion, and more by sickness, which was epidemic, and very mortal.

28. The northern army, at Ticonderoga, was in a disagreeable situation, particularly after the battle on lake Champlain, in which the American force, consisting of a few light vessels, under the command of Arnold and general Waterbury, was totally dispersed. But general Carleton, instead of pursuing his victory, landed at Crown Point, reconnoitered our posts at Ticonderoga and Mount Independence, and returned to winter quarters in Canada.

29. At the close of this year, the American army was dwindled to a handful of men; and general Lee was taken prisoner in New-Jersey.

Far from being discouraged at these losses, congress took measures to raise and establish an army. In this critical situation, general Washington surprised and took a large body of Hessians, who were cantoned at Trenton; and soon after, another body of the British troops, at Princeton. The address in planning and executing these enterprises, reflected the highest honour on the commander, and the success revived the desponding hopes of America. The loss of general Mercer, a gallant officer, at Princeton, was the principal circumstance that allayed the joy of victory.

30. The following year, (1,777,) was distinguished by very memorable events in favour of America. On the opening of the campaign, governor Tryon was sent, with a body of troops, to destroy the stores at Danbury, in Connecticut. This plan was executed, and the town mostly burnt. The enemy suffered in their retreat, and the Americans lost general Wooster, a brave and experienced officer. General Prescott was taken from his quarters on Rhode Island, by the address and enterprise of colonel Barton, and conveyed prisoner to the continent. General Burgoyne, who commanded the northern British army, took possession of Ticonderoga, which had been abandoned by the Americans. He pushed his successes, crossed lake George, and encamped upon the banks of the Hudson, near Saratoga. His progress was however checked by the defeat of colonel Baum, near Bennington, in which the undisciplined militia of Vermont, under general Stark, displayed unexampled bravery, and captured almost the whole detachment. The militia assembled from all parts of New-England, to stop the progress of general Burgoyne. These, with the regular troops, formed a respectable army, commanded by general Gates. After two severe actions, in which the generals Lincoln and Arnold, behaved with uncommon gallantry, and were wounded, general Burgoyne found himself enclosed with brave troops, and was forced to surrender his whole army, amounting to seven thousand men, into the hands of the Americans. This happened in October. This event diffused a universal joy over America, and laid a foundation for the treaty with France.

31. But before these transactions, the main body of the British forces had embarked at New-York, sailed up the Chesapeake, and landed at the head of Elk river. The army soon began their march for Philadelphia. General Washington had determined to oppose them, and for this purpose made a stand upon the heights near Brandywine creek. Here the armies engaged, and the Americans were overpowered, and suffered great loss. The enemy soon pursued their march, and took possession of Philadelphia towards the close of September. Not long after, the two armies were again engaged at Germantown, and in the beginning of the action the Americans had the advantage; but by some unlucky accident, the fortune of the day was turned in favour of the British. Both sides suffered considerable loss; on the side of the Americans was general Nash.

32. In an attack upon the forts at Mud Island and Red Bank, the Hessians were unsuccessful, and their commander, colonel Donop, killed. The British also lost the Augusta, a ship of the line. But the forts were afterwards taken, and the navigation of the Delaware opened. General Washington was reinforced with part of the troops which had composed the northern army, under general Gates; and both armies retired to winter quarters.

33. In October, the same month in which general Burgoyne was taken at Saratoga, general Vaughan, with a small fleet, sailed up

Hudson's river, and wantonly burnt Kingston, a beautiful Dutch settlement, on the west side of the river.

34. The beginning of the next year (1,778) was distinguished by a treaty of alliance between France and America; by which we obtained a powerful ally. When the English ministry were informed that this treaty was on foot, they despatched commissioners to America, to attempt a reconciliation. But America would not now accept their offers. Early in the spring, count de Estaing, with a fleet of fifteen sail of the line, was sent by the court of France to assist America.

35. General Howe left the army, and returned to England; the command then devolved upon sir Henry Clinton. In June, the British army left Philadelphia, and marched for New-York. On their march they were much annoyed by the Americans; and at Monmouth a very regular action took place between part of the armies; the enemy were repulsed with great loss; and had general Lee obeyed his orders, a signal victory must have been obtained. General Lee, for his ill conduct that day, was suspended, and was never afterwards permitted to join the army.

36. In August, general Sullivan, with a large body of troops, attempted to take possession of Rhode Island, but did not succeed. Soon after, the stores and shipping at Bedford, in Massachusetts, were burnt by a party of British troops. The same year, Savannah, the capital of Georgia, was taken by the British, under the command of colonel Campbell. In the following year, (1,779,) general Lincoln was appointed to the command of the southern army. Governor Tryon and sir George Collier made an incursion into Connecticut, and burnt, with wanton barbarity, the towns of Fairfield and Norwalk.

37. But the American arms were crowned with success in a bold attack upon Stony Point, which was surprised and taken by general Wayne, in the night of the 15th of July. Five hundred men were made prisoners, with a small loss on either side. A party of British forces attempted, this summer, to build a fort on Penobscot river, for the purpose of cutting timber in the neighbouring forests. A plan was laid, by Massachusetts, to dislodge them, and a considerable fleet collected for the purpose. But the plan failed of success, and the whole marine force fell into the hands of the British, except some vessels, which were burnt by the Americans themselves.

38. In October, general Lincoln and count de Estaing made an assault upon Savannah; but they were repulsed with considerable loss. In this action, the celebrated Polish count Polaski, who had acquired the reputation of a brave soldier, was mortally wounded. In this summer, general Sullivan marched, with a body of troops, into the Indian country, and burnt and destroyed all their provisions and settlements that fell in his way.

39. On the opening of the campaign, the next year, (1,780,) the British troops left Rhode Island. An expedition under general Clinton and lord Cornwallis, was undertaken against Charleston, South Carolina, where general Lincoln commanded. This town, after a close siege of about six weeks, was surrendered to the British commander; and general Lincoln, and the whole American garrison, were made prisoners.

40. General Gates was appointed to the command in the southern department, and another army collected. In August, lord Cornwallis attacked the American troops at Camden, in South Carolina, and routed them with considerable loss. He afterwards marched through the southern states, and supposed them entirely subdued. The same

summer, the British troops made frequent incursions from New-York into the Jerseys; ravaging and plundering the country. In some of these descents, the Rev. Mr. Caldwell, a respectable clergyman and warm patriot, and his lady, were inhumanly murdered by the savage soldiery.

41. In July, a French fleet, under Monsieur de Ternay, with a body of land forces, commanded by count de Rochambeau, arrived at Rhode Island, to the great joy of the Americans.

42. This year was also distinguished by the infamous treason of Arnold. General Washington having some business to transact at Weathersfield, in Connecticut, left Arnold to command the important post of West Point, which guards a pass in Hudson's river, about sixty miles from New-York. Arnold's conduct in the city of Philadelphia, the preceding winter, had been censured, and the treatment he received in consequence had given him offence. He determined to have revenge; and for this purpose he entered into a negotiation with sir Henry Clinton, to deliver West Point and the army into the hands of the British. While general Washington was absent, he dismounted the cannon in some of the forts, and took other steps to render the taking of the post easy for the enemy. But by a providential discovery, the whole plan was defeated. Major Andre, aid to general Clinton, a brave officer, who had been up the river as a spy, to concert the plan of operations with Arnold, was taken, condemned by a court-martial, and executed. Arnold made his escape by getting on board the Vulture, a British vessel which lay in the river. His conduct has stamped him with infamy, and, like all traitors, he is despised by all mankind. General Washington arrived in camp just after Arnold had made his escape, and restored order in the garrison.

43. After the defeat of general Gates, in Carolina, general Green was appointed to the command in the southern department. From this period, things in this quarter wore a more favourable aspect. Colonel Tarleton, the active commander of the British legion, was defeated by general Morgan, the intrepid commander of the riflemen. After a variety of movements, the two armies met at Guilford, in North Carolina. Here was one of the best fought actions during the war. General Greene and lord Cornwallis exerted themselves, at the head of their respective armies, and, although the Americans were obliged to retire from the field of battle, yet the British army suffered an immense loss, and could not pursue the victory. This action happened on the 15th of March, 1,781.

44. In the spring, Arnold, who was made a brigadier-general in the British service, with a small number of troops, sailed for Virginia, and plundered the country. This called the attention of the French fleet to that quarter, and a naval engagement took place, between the English and French, in which some of the English ships were much damaged, and one entirely disabled.

45. After the battle at Guilford, general Greene moved towards South Carolina, to drive the British from their posts in that state. Here lord Rawdon obtained an inconsiderable advantage over the Americans, near Camden. But general Greene more than recovered this disadvantage, by the brilliant and successful action at the Eutaw springs; where general Marion distinguished himself, and the brave colonel Washington was wounded and taken prisoner. Lord Cornwallis finding general Greene successful in Carolina, marched to Virginia, collected his forces, and fortified himself in Yorktown. In the mean time, Arnold made an incursion into Connecticut, burnt a part

of New-London, took fort Griswold by storm, and put the garrison to the sword. The garrison consisted chiefly of men suddenly collected from the little town of Groton, which, by the savage cruelty of the British officer who commanded the attack, lost, in one hour, almost all its heads of families. The brave colonel Ledyard, who commanded the fort, was slain with his own sword, after he had surrendered.

46. The marquis de la Fayette, the brave and generous nobleman, whose services command the gratitude of every American, had been despatched from the main army to watch the motions of lord Cornwallis, in Virginia. About the last of August, count de Grasse arrived with a large fleet in the Chesapeake, and blocked up the British troops at Yorktown. Admiral Greaves, with a British fleet, appeared off the Capes, and an action succeeded, but it was not decisive. General Washington had, before this time, moved the main body of his army, together with the French troops, to the southward; and, as soon as he heard of the arrival of the French fleet in the Chesapeake, he made rapid marches to the head of the Elk, where embarking, the troops soon arrived at Yorktown. A close siege immediately commenced, and was carried on with such vigour by the combined forces of America and France, that lord Cornwallis was obliged to surrender. This glorious event, which took place on the 19th of October, 1,781, decided the contest in favour of America, and laid the foundation of a general peace. A few months after the surrender of Cornwallis, the British evacuated all their posts in South Carolina and Georgia, and retired to the main army in New-York.

47. The next spring (1,782) sir Guy Carlton arrived in New-York, and took command of the British army in America. Immediately after his arrival, he acquainted general Washington and congress, that negotiations for a peace had been commenced at Paris. On the 30th of November, 1,782, the provisional articles of peace were signed at Paris, by which Great Britain acknowledged the independence and sovereignty of the United States of America.

48. Thus ended a long and arduous conflict, in which Great Britain expended near a hundred millions of money, with a hundred thousand lives, and won nothing. America endured every cruelty and distress from her enemies; lost many lives, and much treasure—but delivered herself from a foreign dominion, and gained a rank among the nations of the earth.

SECTION V.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE STATE AND NATIONAL GOVERNMENTS. WARS WITH TRIPOLI AND THE INDIANS, &c.

1. The important revolution, as regarding the dependance of the colonies on Great Britain, required a corresponding alteration in their governments. Conventions were assembled in the several states, which formed new constitutions, agreeably to the strictest principles of republicanism; retaining whatever was desirable in the original institutions, and at the same time providing additional security against tyranny or corruption. The statute and common laws of England, formerly observed in the provincial courts of justice, remain in practice as before. The inestimable privilege, of British origin, a trial by jury; the freedom of the press, with the additional right, in case of prosecuting for a libel, of giving the truth in evidence; are de-

cared to be fundamental principles. The governments resemble, in their principal organization, the frame of the new federal constitution: they consist of three branches—a governor, a senate, and a lower house of representatives. The elections recur frequently, in which, in most of the states, every freeman has a right to participate.

2. As yet the general government was not established on a solid foundation. The articles of union, formed under the pressure of common danger, were found inadequate to the efficient management of the same country in the selfish periods of peace and security. No efficient fund had been provided to pay the interest of the national debt, and the public securities fell to one tenth of their nominal value. An open resistance to the government was made in Massachusetts, headed by a person of the name of Shays. Danger increased, and the friends of rational liberty became alarmed.

3. The Virginia legislature, in 1,787, in accordance with a motion made by James Madison, made a proposal to the other states to meet in convention for the purpose of digesting a system of government equal to the exigencies of the union. The convention met at Philadelphia, May 25. 1,787, and chose general Washington president; and, after deliberating with closed doors until the 17th of September, agreed on a new plan of national government: this was afterwards ratified by the several states. This new constitution not only fixes the national government on a republican basis, but guaranties to each state of the family a republican form of government, and binds the whole to protect each against foreign invasion or domestic violence. General Washington was unanimously chosen first president under the new constitution. March 4, 1,789, the first congress under the new constitution assembled at New-York; and, in 1,790, duties were levied on imported merchandise, to replenish an empty treasury. The public debt incurred during the revolutionary war was funded, and brought at once to its par value. A national bank was established, not however without opposition. An excise duty laid on domestic spirits, produced an insurrection in the western part of Pennsylvania; but the laws were executed, and on the intervention of an armed force, tranquillity was restored without bloodshed.

4. Two new states were admitted into the confederacy, viz.: Vermont in 1,791, and Kentucky in 1,792. A war with the Creek Indians, whose fighting men amounted to about six hundred, some time existed on the frontier of Georgia: peace, however, was restored there in 1,790. A sanguinary warfare, with various success, was for some time kept up with the north-western Indians. In 1,791, general Harmar was defeated, in the Ohio country, with the loss of three hundred and sixty men killed. General St. Clair, at the head of two thousand militia and regulars, was subsequently worsted, near the Indian villages on the Miami, with the loss of thirty-eight officers, and nearly six hundred privates. St. Clair was succeeded by general Wayne, who completely routed the savage foe, and drove the Indians out of the country. In the year after, Wayne negotiated a satisfactory treaty of peace with the hostile Indians; and at this time commenced a humane system for ameliorating their condition.

5. Whilst the United States were employed in quelling the refractory, and restraining the inroads of a subtle enemy within their own bosom, new sources of difficulty discovered themselves in the great convulsions of Europe. The French revolution had commenced, and that nation was under the wild misrule of its directory. Claims for assistance were made on the United States. Genet, the French envoy,

having arrived at Charleston, undertook to authorize the arming of vessels in that port, and the enlisting of men; giving commissions, in the name of the French government, to cruise at sea, and commit hostilities on land, against nations with whom the United States were at peace. The British minister remonstrated. The president issued orders for defeating the unwarrantable interference of the French ambassador. Genet threatened an appeal to the people, but was soon after recalled. Afterwards, the French directory authorized the indiscriminate capture of all vessels sailing under the flag of the United States; and ordered the American envoys to leave France. Two severe actions occurred in the West Indies, between the American frigate Constellation, of thirty-eight guns, and the French frigate L'Insurgente, of forty, and the same frigate and the La Vengeance, of fifty guns, in which L'Insurgente was captured, and La Vengeance worsted.

6. In 1,797, John Adams was chosen president; and in the year after, Washington was called to the head of the army, in the prospect of a protracted war with France. But speedily after the overthrow of the directory government, all the disputes between France and the United States were amicably arranged.

7. Although, since the definitive treaty of Paris, there occurred no open hostilities between England and the United States, yet they were far from being on terms of amity and conciliation. On various pretexts, the English retained possession of the forts on the south side of the lakes, forming the northern boundary of the United States; and irritation was continually excited by the English insisting on the right of searching American ships for enemy's property. Mr. Jay was deputed envoy to London, and negotiated a treaty, in 1,795, which settled the differences between the two nations, but the terms of which were much opposed in the United States.

8. December 14, 1,799, died the illustrious Washington, of an inflammatory sore throat and fever, contracted from a slight exposure to the wet weather, after an illness of only about twenty-four hours.

9. The seat of government had been removed from New-York to Philadelphia, both of which places being deemed inconvenient, provision was made, at the second session after the formation of government, for the removal of the government to a district on the Potomac, which was ceded to the United States by Virginia and Maryland; and, in 1,800, the public offices were removed to the infant capital, on which magnificent buildings had been erected. This city bears the name of Washington, and the district that of Columbia.

10. The war with Tripoli commenced in 1,801, by an engagement of the Enterprise, captain Sterrett, with a Tripolitan corsair, off Malta, in which the American was victorious. Commodore Murray, the following year, in the frigate Constellation, was attacked, while cruising off Tripoli, by a formidable number of gun boats, but obliged them to retire in confusion. In 1,803, the Philadelphia frigate, captain Bainbridge, ran upon a rock, in the very jaws of the pirates; was obliged to strike, and her officers and crew, amounting to three hundred, were made prisoners. This vessel was, however, recaptured and burnt, while lying in the harbour of Tripoli, February 16, 1,804, by captain Stephen Decatur, jr., and seventy men—one of the most daring and gallant exploits on record. From the 3d to the 29th of August following, commodore Preble made three general attacks upon the Tripolitan batteries. The barbarian enemy continued to treat the American prisoners with the most atrocious cruelty. Another

expedient was tried by the American government. General Eaton was despatched to co-operate with Hamet, who had been driven from the government of Tripoli by the usurpation of his brother. Travelling to Egypt, he found the exile, and proceeding fifty-two days through a hideous desert, he arrived before Derne, a city in the regency of Tripoli, and carried the town at the point of the bayonet. Twice did the enemy attempt to retake the town; but, against fearful odds, they were repulsed by Eaton. This brought the reigning bashaw to terms; a peace was concluded by colonel Lear, and the prisoners long detained in captivity, were released.

11. Tennessee in 1,796, and Ohio in 1,800, were added to the states of the union. In 1,803, Louisiana was purchased from the French government, for the sum of fifteen millions of dollars; and in 1,812, a portion of this extended territory was erected into a state by that name. By this cession, the United States have acquired a territory of vast magnitude, and extraordinary fertility, from which new states will continue to be incorporated.

12. In the autumn of 1,806, Aaron Burr was detected in an enterprise of great moment, the separation of the western states from the union, and the subjugation of New-Orleans: his plan was defeated by the vigilance of the government; Burr was arrested on a charge of high treason—but no overt act being proved on him, he was released.

SECTION VI.

WAR WITH GREAT BRITAIN, &c.

1. We come now to treat of those interesting events which brought on a second contest between Great Britain and the United States. The custom of searching American vessels on the ocean, and impressing from them British seamen, had long been practised by the English. But hitherto the custom had been confined to private vessels: now, it was extended in some instances to public armed vessels. Four seamen, deserters from the British navy, were reported to have entered the service of the United States, and to have been received on board the frigate Chesapeake, at the time lying at Hampton roads, preparing for the Mediterranean. Admiral Berkeley ordered captain Humphries, of the Leopard, to follow the Chesapeake beyond the waters of the United States, and demand the deserters: this he did, and, after demanding the seamen, fired a broadside upon the American frigate. This unexpected attack so disconcerted captain Barron, that he immediately struck the colours of the Chesapeake, and permitted the four seamen to be taken without resistance. The Leopard carried fifty, the Chesapeake only thirty-six guns. On board the latter, four men were killed and sixteen wounded. One of the impressed seamen was afterwards hanged, and one died in prison: and there was reason for supposing that three of them were native Americans. Captain Barron, for neglect of duty, was suspended from command for five years. This tragical occurrence produced a general indignation. The British, however, disavowed admiral Berkeley's orders, and removed him from the station, but soon after appointed him to a more important one.

2. New systems of blockade were invented by the belligerents, commencing with the French decree of Berlin, of November 21,

1,806 : January 7, 1,807, came the British order prohibiting coasting trade ; November 11, the celebrated British orders in council ; and December 7, the French Milan decree. December 22, of the same year, congress, on the recommendation of Mr. Jefferson, then president, ordered an embargo, prohibiting the exportation of every article from the United States. March 4, 1,809, the embargo was removed, and non-intercourse substituted. April 19, an arrangement was made with Mr. Erskine, which induced the American government to renew the trade with England ; this arrangement was subsequently disavowed by the British government. The insulting deportment of the succeeding negotiator, Mr. Jackson, heightened the resentment of the republic ; and a rencounter between the American and British ships of war, President and Little Belt, increased the unfriendly sentiments of England.

3. Mr. Foster, a new British minister, offered honourable reparation for the indignity on the Chesapeake ; but no change could be procured in the systems practised by Great Britain and France against American trade. The United States now offered to either of the belligerents, or both, as soon as they ceased to violate the neutral commerce of the republic, that the non-intercourse arrangement should be discontinued. The French artfully embraced the offer, by information that the French Berlin and Milan decrees had been revoked ; and non-intercourse with France was discontinued by proclamation of the president.

4. War was declared by the United States against Great Britain, June 18, 1,812, too late to avail themselves of the retraction of the British orders in council, which followed the repeal of the Berlin and Milan decrees. The congress voted an addition to the regular army, of twenty-five thousand men ; authorized a loan of eleven millions ; and nearly doubled the duties on imports.

5. Previous to the declaration of war, indications of hostility had appeared among the Indians on the frontiers bordering on Canada. A body of troops, under governor Harrison, was attacked on the 7th of November, 1,811, near a branch of the Wabash, by a larger body of Indians, who were defeated, not without considerable loss to the Americans.

6. On the 12th of July, general Hull, governor of the Michigan territory, crossed from Detroit into the province of Canada, with a considerable force. In this situation, he soon received intelligence of the capture of the American post at Michillimackinac. On the 8th of August, he returned to Detroit, followed by the British general Brock, with his regulars and Indians ; and he soon surrendered to the British, not only his army, but included the whole territory of Michigan in the articles of capitulation. He was afterwards tried, and found guilty of cowardice and neglect of duty, and sentenced to be shot : but, in consideration of his revolutionary services, and his age, the court recommended him to mercy, and the president withdrew the punishment of death. He has since endeavoured, by letters addressed to the people of this country, to justify his conduct ; and with many persons his endeavours have been successful.

7. On the 19th of August, the Constitution frigate, captain Hull, captured the British frigate Guerriere, captain Dacres, after an action of thirty minutes : loss of the Guerriere, fifteen killed, sixty-four wounded, and twenty-one missing—that of the Constitution, seven killed and seven wounded. October 25, the frigate United States, captain Decatur, met the British frigate Macedonian, off the western

isles, and captured her after an action of one hour and a half: British loss, thirty-six killed and sixty-eight wounded—American loss, seven killed, five wounded. The next naval achievement was the capture of the British brig Frolic by the American sloop Wasp, commanded by captain Jones: British loss, thirty killed and fifty wounded—American, five killed, five wounded. In December, the Constitution, captain Bainbridge, again met the enemy, and the frigate Java was captured: British loss, sixty killed, and one hundred and one wounded—American, nine killed, twenty-five wounded. Besides these victories of public ships, numerous privateers swarmed the ocean, and, before the meeting of congress, in November, nearly two hundred and fifty vessels were captured from the enemy.

8. In November, general Van Rensselaer, with about one thousand troops, crossed the Niagara river into Upper Canada, and attacked the British at Queenstown; and, after an obstinate engagement, was obliged to surrender, with a loss of sixty killed, and about one hundred wounded. In this engagement the British general Brock was killed.

9. Early in 1,813, an action was fought at the river Raisin, between an American detachment, under general Winchester, and a British and Indian force under colonel Proctor. The Americans were defeated, and the greater part of five hundred prisoners were immediately massacred, Proctor being unable or unwilling to protect them, as he had expressly stipulated! Soon after, general Harrison was attacked and besieged, by the combined British and Indians at fort Meigs. A desultory war was kept up for some time. Colonel Dudley was detached from the fort, to attack the enemy's battery on the opposite side of the river. He succeeded in capturing the battery, but his troops, imprudently pursuing the enemy, were soon surrounded by an Indian army, three times their number, headed by the Indian general Tecumseh; a desperate fight, and a scene of slaughter almost as terrible as that at Raisin, ensued. Of eight hundred men composing the detachment, only about one hundred and fifty escaped.

10. On the 21st of February, the British attacked Ogdensburgh, on the river St. Lawrence, with a force of twelve hundred, and compelled the Americans to evacuate the place. In April, the Americans, under general Pike, landed at York, in Upper Canada; and, after some severe fighting, succeeded in capturing or destroying a large amount of public stores. The British lost seven hundred and fifty men, in killed, wounded, and captured. The brave Pike was mortally wounded, by the explosion of a magazine, which had been purposely set on fire. The object of the expedition being gained, the American forces evacuated York on the 1st of May, and re-embarked.

11. Fort George, commanded by general Vincent, was taken by the American forces, under general Boyd and colonel Miller, May 27, after a sharp conflict. The British lost, in killed and wounded, about two hundred and fifty men, besides six hundred prisoners—their antagonists, thirty-nine killed and one hundred and eight wounded. Soon afterwards, generals Chandler and Winder, who had advanced with a considerable force, were attacked in the night, by general Vincent, who had been reinforced, between fort George and Burlington bay, and, in a scene of confusion, were both made prisoners; their troops retired to fort George.

12. Captain James Lawrence, of the Hornet, fell in with, and captured, the British sloop of war Peacock, February 24. The action lasted eight minutes; and the British captain and several others were killed, and twenty-nine wounded—the Hornet had three wounded.

The Peacock sunk soon after the action, and thirteen British sailors went down with her. Captain Lawrence was afterwards appointed to the command of the ill-fated Chesapeake, then lying in Boston harbour. The British frigate Shannon, commanded by captain Broke, had been for some time in the bay, seeking an engagement with an American frigate. Lawrence, burning with impatience to meet the enemy, did not wait to inquire into the relative condition of the vessels. The Shannon had a picked crew, and was accoutred for the express purpose of engaging an American frigate of the largest size. The Chesapeake, not of the largest description of frigates, had recently discharged a part of her crew, and enlisted others: several of her officers were sick. Lawrence sailed on the first of June; and when he came within sight of the Shannon, addressed his crew, but they listened with no enthusiasm: some complained that they had not received their prize money—murmurs and dissatisfaction were general; in fact the crew were almost in a state of mutiny. The Chesapeake closed with the enemy and gave the first broadside; and at the first fire of the Shannon, captain Lawrence was mortally wounded. A second and a third broadside gave the British a decided advantage, which was followed up by boarding the Chesapeake. A scene of carnage ensued; captain Lawrence was carried below, exclaiming, as he left the deck, "Don't give up the ship." Every officer qualified for command in the Chesapeake, was either killed or disabled: about eighty were killed, and as many wounded. Of the British, twenty-three were killed and fifty-six wounded. The captured frigate was carried in triumph to Halifax. The brilliant achievements of Wellington and Nelson scarcely called forth more lively expressions of exultation in England, than did the capture of the Chesapeake. The tower guns at London were fired on reception of the news, and the prince regent conferred on captain Broke the order of knighthood.

13. On the 4th of August, the American sloop of war Argus was captured by the Pelican, a vessel of her own class, but said to be two guns superior. Captain Allen, commander of the Argus, was mortally wounded at the first broadside of the enemy. In the following month, the American brig Enterprize captured the Boxer, a vessel superior in effective force. The only person killed on board the Enterprize was her gallant commander, lieutenant Burroughs, and thirteen were wounded. The British loss was greater: among the slain was captain Blythe, who commanded the Boxer, and who was buried by the side of his antagonist in the town of Portland, off whose harbour the action was fought.

14. But the most brilliant achievement this year was that of the youthful Perry on lake Erie. The British force consisted of six vessels, having sixty-three guns; that of the Americans, of nine vessels and fifty-six guns. The conflict was tremendous. The flag ship of Perry suffered dreadfully in the loss of men, and was on the point of sinking: he left the ship in the midst of the hottest fire, and proceeded to another vessel; and after three hours conflict, the laurel of victory was assigned to Perry; the triumph was complete—not a single vessel of the enemy escaped. This action took place on the 10th of September, and made the Americans masters of the lake. The gallant Perry announced this victory in the following laconic epistle to general Harrison: "We have met the enemy and they are ours—two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop."

15. Chesapeake bay was blockaded by the British during the spring of this year, and several predatory incursions by their troops were

made. Much property was plundered and destroyed, and many disgraceful scenes occurred, particularly at Hampton and Havre de Grace.

16. An attack was made, May 29, on Sackett's harbour by about one thousand British, who were repulsed with considerable loss. General Brown commanded the American, and sir George Prevost the British troops. About the same time the British attacked Craney Island, near Norfolk, and were defeated with loss.

17. General Dearborn, the American commander, retired from service this year. Fort Sandusky was invested by a large force of British and Indians; and the exploit of major Croghan in repulsing the assailants with great loss, called forth general admiration. In October, Detroit was abandoned by the British, on the approach of a large army under general Harrison; who, soon after, defeated the enemy under the command of general Proctor, in Upper Canada; in this battle the celebrated Tecumseh was killed.

18. Little was done this year towards the conquest of Canada. General Wilkinson descended the St. Lawrence from lake Ontario in November; and an engagement took place at Williamsburgh, in which the Americans were repulsed with the loss of three hundred killed, wounded, and prisoners. A disagreement between the generals Hampton and Wilkinson, prevented that concert which was necessary to secure success; the design of attacking Montreal was relinquished, and the army retired to winter quarters. Fort George was evacuated in the month of December; and misconceiving his instructions, general M'Clure, who commanded the fortress, set fire to the village of Newark. Niagara was afterwards surprised and retaken by the British.—The British crossed over to the American side, and in resentment for the destruction of Newark, burnt Buffalo and some other villages, and laid waste the whole frontier.

19. The Creek Indians, who had been for some time in open hostilities with the United States, were completely subdued this season and the succeeding spring, principally by troops commanded by general Andrew Jackson.

20. In January, 1,814, propositions having been made by the prince regent for a negotiation, Messrs. Russell and Clay were appointed to join Messrs. Adams, Bayard, and Gallatin, already in Europe, as commissioners to meet such as the British government might appoint; and Messrs. Gambier, Golbourn, and William Adams were appointed to meet them. The place of assembling was first fixed at Gottenburg, but afterwards changed to Ghent in Flanders; where the commissioners met in August.

21. The frigate Essex, captain David Porter, after having long cruised in the Pacific and captured a great number of British vessels, was herself captured in the harbour of Valparaiso, by the British frigate Phebe and the sloop Cherub. The Peacock captured the British brig Epervier, April 29, after an action of forty-two minutes. The Hornet sloop of war captured the English national brig Penguin; and the old Constitution, under captain Stewart, overcame the united forces of the Cyane and Levant.

22. In the beginning of July, fort Erie was taken by the Americans. On the 4th of July, a brilliant victory was gained by general Brown at Chippewa. On the 25th, one of the most sanguinary battles on record took place at Bridgewater: in this action the American generals Scott, Ripley, and Porter, with colonel Miller, majors Hindman, Jessup, Leavenworth, and M'Neil, distinguished themselves. The

British forces were led by generals Drummond and Rial. The battle lasted from four o'clock, P. M. until midnight. The British lost nine hundred, killed, wounded, and prisoners: the American loss was less. The latter maintained their ground; while the former retired.

23. The town of Eastport in the bay of Passamaquoddy, was this year taken by a British naval force; and soon after the British took possession of Castine and all that part of the new state of Maine, lying between that place and Penobscot river, and compelled many of the inhabitants to take the oath of allegiance to Great Britain. The British this year landed marauding parties, at Saybrook, Wareham, Scituate, and other places, and destroyed much shipping: in an attempt on Stonington, they were beaten off by the gallant inhabitants with loss.

24. From the 16th to the 20th of August, about sixty sail of the British arrived in the Chesapeake, intending to invade the States in earnest. More than fifty of them landed at Benedict, on the Patuxent, about forty miles from Washington. On the 22d the British flankers reached Wood Yard, fourteen miles from Washington. Commodore Barney here blew up a flotilla of gun boats to prevent their falling into the hands of the enemy. On the 23d the British forces, estimated at six thousand, reached Bladensburgh, about six miles from Washington. Here a short engagement took place: but the greater part of the American militia fled. Commodore Barney, with a few eighteen pounders and about four hundred men, made a gallant resistance from Bladensburg to the city: but he was wounded and taken prisoner. The British here destroyed the capitol, the president's house, and several other public buildings, mutilated the monument in the navy yard, and committed many excesses. In the night of the 25th, the British retired, gained their shipping by rapid marches, and embarked on board their ships on the 27th. Several British ships under captain Gordon, at the same time, ascended the Potomac, appeared before Alexandria, robbed the defenceless inhabitants of a vast quantity of flour and other plunder; and escaped down the river without molestation.

25. August 14, General Drummond was repulsed in an attack on fort Erie, after a severe conflict, with a loss of five hundred and eighty two in killed, wounded, and prisoners, two hundred and twenty-one being killed; American loss in killed and wounded, two hundred and forty-five.

26. On Sunday, the 11th of September, admiral Cochrane appeared off Baltimore with about fifty sail. The larger vessels landed at North Point, ten miles from the city, about seven thousand troops under general Ross and admiral Cockburn. The next day, as they advanced towards the city, they were met by general Stricker with about three thousand militia, and a severe engagement took place, in which the British general was killed. The Americans were however repulsed by superior numbers; and on Tuesday evening, the British advanced to within about two miles of the American entrenchments. But so strong was the American force, and so valiantly had they fought the preceding day, that the British retreated before morning, and hastily re-embarked. A grand attack was made on Tuesday on fort M'Henry, on the other side of the city and commanding the water passage to it, from frigates, bomb, and rocket vessels, which lasted the whole day and a part of the night, doing but little damage. In the night about a thousand of the enemy landed between the fort and the city, but were soon repulsed. The loss of the Americans in killed,

wounded, and prisoners, was two hundred and thirteen: that of the British is not known. The enemy, thus discomfited, moved down the bay.

27. The governor-general of Canada, sir George Prevost, with from twelve to fourteen thousand men, made an attack on Plattsburgh, September 11. At the same time a naval engagement, on lake Champlain, took place in sight of the land forces. The American fleet having eighty-six guns and eight hundred and twenty-six men, was commanded by captain M'Donough; the British, consisting of ninety-five guns and one thousand and fifty men, was commanded by commodore Downie. The action ended in the surrender of the British vessels, viz. one frigate, one brig, and two sloops of war. Some of their gallies were sunk; others escaped. American loss, fifty-two killed, fifty-eight wounded: British loss, eighty-four killed, one hundred and ten wounded. At the same time that the fleets were engaged, governor Prevost attacked the forts at Plattsburgh with his land forces, throwing shells, balls, and rockets: he attempted to cross the Saranac, but was repulsed at three different places. So effectual was the fire of the Americans, that, before sunset, the batteries he had erected were all silenced: and at nine o'clock in the evening his whole army began a rapid retreat, leaving many wounded, and much ammunition, provision, and baggage. The American loss this day, and in skirmishes previous on land, was thirty-nine killed, sixty-two wounded, and twenty missing: the loss of the British, in killed, wounded, and deserters, besides those on board the fleet, was estimated at two thousand five hundred. General Alexander Macomb commanded the American land forces.

28. As on Erie and Champlain, so on the lake Ontario, each party strove for a naval ascendency. Several large ships were built by the Americans at Sackett's harbour, and by the British at Kingston. The American fleet was commanded by captain Chauncey, and the British by commodore Yeo. As at no time, one side equalled the other in strength, so at all times one avoided as the other sought for an engagement. A partial action once took place; but the British commander, at that time supposing his force inferior, took the advantage of circumstances to make his port. One of the British vessels ready for sea at the close of the war manned nearly one hundred guns; and two of the largest class of vessels in the world were at the same time erecting at Sackett's harbour.

29. In a sortie from fort Erie, under the command of general Jacob Brown, after a severe engagement, the British were defeated with the loss of nearly a thousand, in killed, wounded, and prisoners: the American loss exceeded five hundred.

30. The frigate President, commodore Decatur, sailed from New-York, January 14, 1815, and was the next day pursued by four frigates and a brig of the enemy. An engagement took place between the foremost of the pursuing vessels, the Endymion and the President: after a severe action of two hours, the Endymion was silenced and beaten off. The Pamone and Tenedos in one hour coming up, the President was obliged to surrender.

31. One of the most splendid events on the part of the Americans closed the late war: it was the discomfiture and repulse of the British at New-Orleans. A very large British force entered lake Pontchartrain, near New-Orleans, early in December, 1,814, defeating, after an obstinate conflict the small American naval force stationed there. The British were commanded by general Packenham, one of Welling-

ton's invincibles who had conquered the great Napoleon: the American army was led by general Andrew Jackson. Several skirmishes took place, in which the British were almost the exclusive sufferers. On Sunday morning early, January 8, a grand attack was made by the British on the American troops in their entrenchments. After an engagement of more than an hour, the enemy were cut to pieces to a degree almost beyond example, and fled in confusion, leaving on the field of battle their dead and wounded. The British loss was seven hundred killed, fourteen hundred wounded, and five hundred prisoners: the generals Packenham and Keane, were among the slain, and general Cobb was dangerously wounded. The American loss was said to be only seven killed and six wounded! The attack was not renewed, and in a short time after, the British left the west.

32. Up to the close of 1,814, the British ministry, calculating to bring the Americans to their terms, had discovered an indisposition to treat with the commissioners of the United States; but the defeat of the British before Plattsburgh, gave a new turn to the negotiation, and a treaty of peace was signed at Ghent, December 24, 1,814. Both nations agreed to appoint commissioners to settle disputed boundaries. No allusion was made in the treaty to the causes of the war. Security against their recurrence rests, however, on a much firmer basis than the provisions of the most solemn treaty. Britain has been taught to appreciate the strength of the republic. By this war the public debt of the United States was increased a hundred millions of dollars.

33. It would too much extend this sketch of the history of the republic, to trace to its source the origin of parties which have divided the country into two great sections with different appellations. The distinction was unknown until subsequent to Mr. Jay's treaty with Great Britain in 1,795. George Washington was elected president in 1,788, and re-elected in 1,792. He was succeeded by John Adams, elected in 1,796, between whom and Thomas Jefferson the parties divided in 1,800: the latter was chosen at that time, not however until he had been balloted for thirty-six times by the house of representatives in congress, the vote by states being at each balloting equally divided between Mr. Jefferson and Aaron Burr. In 1,804, Mr. Jefferson was re-elected. Declining an election in 1,808, Mr. Jefferson gave place to James Madison. The latter continuing eight years, James Monroe was elected to the presidency in 1,816; and so general was the satisfaction with the administration, that in 1,820, he had all the electoral votes save one for the same office.

34. Since the peace the attention of the country has been called to the propriety of augmenting the national defence. Congress having made appropriations for the purpose, extensive fortifications have been and continue to be erected for the security of the commercial towns. One million of dollars annually is likewise appropriated for the gradual augmentation of the navy, to which, independent of smaller vessels, nine ships of the line, twelve frigates, and three floating batteries are to be added.

35. By an act of congress in the year 1,818, a yearly pension, sufficient for their decent maintenance, having been granted to those officers and privates who served more than nine months at any one time in the war of the revolution, more than thirty thousand individuals made application for relief. The sum required much exceeded general expectation; and the following year an additional act was passed which circumscribed the applicants to a narrow space. Importations having lessened, the amount received into the treasury from duties became

less than the calculations; and in 1,821, the standing military force was reduced from ten to six thousand, and the building of ships of war was, in some degree, suspended.

36. Since the admission of Louisiana in 1,812, six other states have been admitted into the Union—Indiana in 1,816, Mississippi in 1,817, Illinois in 1,818, Alabama in 1,819, Maine in 1,820, and Missouri in 1,821. Indiana and Illinois are sections of the same territory from which Ohio was made a state. Mississippi and Alabama belonged to Georgia and Louisiana: Maine was separated from Massachusetts, and Missouri from the vast tract ceded by the French, under the name of Louisiana.

37. A treaty was concluded at Washington in 1,819, by which Spain ceded to the United States that portion of her territory, known by the name of Florida. Five millions of dollars was the price; and the sum, in pursuance of the treaty, has been paid as indemnity to American citizens for illegal seizures of their property in Spanish ports.

38. Besides the different state governments, territorial governments, with magistrates appointed by the president and senate, exist in Michigan, Arkansas and Florida.

39. In the year 1,820, the fourth authorized census of the inhabitants was recorded. The progress of population has been rapid almost beyond a parallel. In 1,790, the population was three millions nine hundred and twenty-one thousand: in 1,800, five millions three hundred and twenty thousand: in 1,810, seven millions two hundred and forty thousand; and in 1,820, nine millions six hundred and thirty-eight thousand.

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

EXPLANATION OF THE TABLE OF CHRONOLOGY.

To give a distinct view of the succession of princes in the chief empires or kingdoms, without employing different columns, (which distracts the attention, and occupies too much space,) the series of the sovereigns of different nations is distinguished in this table by different typographical characters. By this method the succession of the sovereigns in the different kingdoms is immediately distinguishable, and also the duration of their reigns. In the intervals of time between every two successive reigns are recorded the remarkable events which occurred in those periods, in all parts of the world; and thus the connexion of general history is preserved unbroken.

The series of the kings and emperors of Rome is printed in a larger Roman type than the rest of the table: as,

14 Tiberius, Emperor of Rome.

The series of the popes is distinguishable by this character ¶ prefixed to each name; as,

1513 ¶ Pope Leo X.

The names of the emperors of Germany are printed in Italic capitals; as,

887 *ARNOLD*, Emperor of Germany.

The kings of England are designated by the black Saxon type: as,

1066 **William** (the Conqueror) king of England.

The kings of Scotland are denoted by a larger capital beginning the word; as,

1390 **R**obert III., king of Scotland.

The kings of France are distinguished by the Italic type; as,

1498 *Lewis XII., king of France.*

CHRONOLOGICAL TABLE.

B. C.

4004 The Creation of the World, according to the Hebrew text of the Scriptures.
According to the version of the Septuagint 5872.
According to the Samaritan version 4700.
2348 The Universal Deluge.
2247 The Building of Babel; the Dispersion of Mankind; and the Confusion of Languages.
2217 Nimrod supposed to have built Babylon, and founded the Babylonish Monarchy; and Assur to have built Nineveh, and founded the Monarchy of Assyria.
2188 Menes (in Scripture Misraim) founds the Monarchy of Egypt.
2084 The Shepherd Kings conquer Egypt.
2040 Mœris King of Thebes and Memphis in Egypt.
1996 The Birth of Abram.
1897 Sodom and Gomorrah destroyed by fire from Heaven.
1896 Isaac born.
1856 Inachus founds the Kingdom of Argos in Greece.
1836 Jacob and Esau born.
1825 The Shepherd Kings abandon Egypt.
1823 Death of Abraham.
1796 The Deluge of Ogyges in Attica.
1722 Sesostris or Rameses King of Egypt.
1635 Joseph dies in Egypt.
1582 The Chronology of the Arundelian Marbles begins with this year.
1571 Moses born in Egypt.
1556 Cecrops founds the kingdom of Athens.
1546 Scamander founds the Kingdom of Troy.
1532 Judgment of the Areopagus between Mars and Neptune, two princes of Thessaly.
1529 The Deluge of Deucalion in Thessaly.
1522 The Council of the Amphictyons instituted.
1520 Corinth built.
1506 Erectheus or Erycthonius institutes the Panathenæan Games.
1493 Cadmus builds Thebes, and introduces Letters into Greece.
1491 Moses brings the Israelites out of Egypt.
1453 The first Olympic Games celebrated in Greece.
1452 The Pentateuch, or five Books of Moses, written.
1451 The Israelites led into the land of Canaan by Joshua.
1438 Pandion King of Athens.
1406 Minos reigns in Crete, and gives laws to the Cretans.
1376 Sethos reigns in Egypt.
1322 Belus reigns in Babylon.
1267 Ninus reigns in Assyria.
1266 Oedipus marries his Mother Jocasta, and reigns in Thebes.
1263 The Argonautic Expedition. According to the Newtonian Chronology 937.
1257 Theseus unites the Cities of Attica.
1252 Tyre, the capital of Phœnicia, built.
1225 Siege of Thebes. War between Eteocles and Polynices.

B. C.
1225 Eurysthenes and Procles Kings of Lacedæmon.
1215 Second War of Thebes, or War of the Epigonoi.
—— Semiramis supposed to have reigned at Babylon.
1207 Gideon Judge of Israel.
1202 Teucer built Salamis.
1193 The Trojan War begins.
1184 Troy taken and burnt by the Greeks. According to the Arundelian Marbles 1209.
1182 Æneas lands in Italy.
1155 Samson born.
1104 Return of the Heraclidæ into Peloponnesus.
1099 Samuel delivers Israel.
1079 Saul King of Israel.
1070 Medon first Archon of Athens.
1069 Codrus King of Athens devotes himself for his country.
1055 David King of Israel.
1004 Dedication of Solomon's Temple.
980 Rehoboam King of Israel.
889 Athaliah, wife of Jehoram, usurps the throne of Judah.
886 Homer's Poems brought from Asia into Greece.
884 Lycurgus reforms the Constitution of Lacedæmon.
869 The city of Carthage built by Dido.
820 Nineveh taken by Arbaces and Belesis, which finishes that kingdom.
776 The first Olympiad begins in this year.
769 Syracuse built by Archias of Corinth.
767 Sardanapalus King of Assyria.
760 The Ephori, popular Magistrates, instituted at Lacedæmon.
757 Halyattes King of Lydia.
754 Decennial Archons elected at Athens.
752 The foundation of Rome by Romulus.
748 Rape of the Sabine Women.
747 The Era of Nabonassar made use of by Ptolemy.
738 Candaules King of Lydia.
724 Hezekiah tenth King of Judah.
721 Salmanazar takes Samaria, and carries the Ten Tribes into captivity, which puts an end to the Israelitish Kingdom.
715 Numa Pompilius second King of Rome.
711 Sennacherib, King of Assyria, invades Judea.
710 Dejoces King of Media.
708 Habakkuk prophesied.
703 Corcyra founded by the Corinthians.
696 Manasseh sixteenth King of Judah.
688 Judith kills Holofernes the Assyrian General.
684 Annual Archons elected at Athens.
681 Esarhaddon unites the Kingdoms of Babylon and Assyria.
672 Tullus Hostilius third King of Rome.
670 Psammeticus King of Egypt.
667 The Combat between the Horatii and Curiatii.
658 Byzantium founded by Pausanias King of Sparta.
—— Phraortes King of Media.
640 Ancus Martius fourth King of Rome.
627 The Forty Years of Ezekiel began.
626 Periander Tyrant of Corinth.
—— Nabopolassar, father of Nebuchadnezzar, begins to reign at Babylon.
624 Draco Archon and Legislator of Athens.
616 Tarquinius Priscus fifth King of Rome.
606 Nebuchadnezzar takes Jerusalem, and carries the Jews into captivity.
601 Battle between the Medes and Lydians, who are separated by a great eclipse of the sun, predicted by Thales. (Newton. Chron. 585.)

B. C.
601 End of the Assyrian Empire. Nineveh taken by Nebuchadnezzar.
600 Jeremiah prophesied.
599 Birth of Cyrus the Great.
594 Solon Archon and Legislator of Athens.
578 Servius Tullius sixth King of Rome.
572 Nebuchadnezzar subdues Egypt.
571 Phalaris Tyrant of Agrigentum.
562 Comedies first exhibited at Athens by Thespis.
— Crœsus reigns in Lydia.
551 Confucius, the Chinese Philosopher, born.
550 Pisistratus Tyrant of Athens.
548 The Ancient Temple of Delphos burnt by the Pisistratidæ.
538 Babylon taken by Cyrus. End of the Babylonian Empire.
536 Cyrus ascends the throne of Persia. He puts an end to the Jewish captivity, which had lasted seventy years.
534 Tarquinius Superbus seventh King of Rome.
— Daniel prophesied.
529 Death of Cyrus the Great. Cambyses King of Persia.
— Death of Pisistratus Tyrant of Athens.
522 Darius, son of Hystaspes, King of Persia.
520 The Jews begin to build the second Temple, which is finished in four years.
510 The Pisistratidæ expelled from Athens, and the Democracy restored.
— Statues erected at Athens to Harmodius and Aristogiton.
509 The Tarquins expelled from Rome and the Regal Government abolished.
508 The first Alliance between the Romans and Carthaginians.
504 Sardis taken and burnt by the Athenians.
498 The first Dictator created at Rome (Lartius.)
497 Institution of the Saturnalia at Rome.
493 The port of Piræus built by the Athenians.
490 The Battle of Marathon, in which Miltiades defeats the Persians.
488 The first Tribunes of the People created at Rome. According to Blair 493.
— Miltiades dies in prison.
486 Xerxes succeeds his father Darius in the kingdom of Persia.
485 Coriolanus banished from Rome.
483 Quæstors instituted at Rome.
— Aristides banished from Athens by the Ostracism.
480 The Spartans, under Leonidas, slain at Thermopylæ.
— Naval Victory gained by the Greeks over the Persians at Salamis.
479 Attica laid waste and Athens burnt by Mardonius.
— Victories over the Persians at Platæa and Mycale.
— Xerxes leaves Greece.
477 300 Fabii killed by the Veientes.
476 Themistocles rebuilds Athens.
— Valerius triumphs over the Veientes and Sabines.
— The Roman Citizens numbered at 103,000.
— A great Eruption of Ætna.
— Hiero King of Syracuse.
471 Volero, the Roman Tribune, obtains a law for the election of magistrates in the comitia held by tribes.
470 Cimon, son of Miltiades, defeats the Persian army and fleet in one day, at the mouth of the river Eurymedon.
469 Capua founded by the Tuscans.
464 Artaxerxes (Longimanus) King of Persia.
— Cimon banished by the Ostracism.
463 Egypt revolts from the Persians.
462 The Terentian Law proposed at Rome.
456 Cincinnatus Dictator at Rome.

B. C.
456 The Ludi Sæculares first instituted at Rome.
455 Commencement of the Seventy Prophetical Weeks of Daniel.
453 The number of the Tribunes of the people at Rome increased from Five to Ten.
452 The two Books of Chronicles supposed to have been written at this time by Ezra.
451 Creation of the Decemviri at Rome, and Compilation of the Laws of the Twelve Tables.
449 Peace between the Greeks and Persians concluded by Cimon, glorious for Greece.
— Death of Virginia, and Abolition of the Decemvirate.
445 The Law of Canuleius for the Intermarriage of the Patricians and Plebeians at Rome.
— Military Tribunes created.
437 The Censorship first instituted at Rome.
436 Pericles in high power at Athens.
432 Meton's Cycle of the Moon of nineteen years.
431 The Peloponnesian War begins, which lasted twenty-seven years.
430 The History of the Old Testament ends about this time.
— Great Plague at Athens, eloquently described by Thucydides.
— Malachi the last of the Prophets.
428 Death of Pericles.
423 Darius Nothus King of Persia.
418 Disturbances at Rome on account of the Agrarian Law.
414 The Athenians defeated before Syracuse.
413 Alcibiades, accused at Athens, flies to the Lacedæmonians.
412 A Council of 400 governs Athens.
405 Lysander defeats the Athenians at Ægos Potamos.
404 Artaxerxes II. (Mnemon) King of Persia.
— End of the Peloponnesian War.
403 Lysander takes Athens. Government of the Thirty Tyrants.
401 The younger Cyrus defeated by his brother Artaxerxes, and killed.
— Retreat of the Ten Thousand Greeks.
— Persecution and Death of Socrates.
— Thrasybulus drives out the Thirty Tyrants, and delivers Athens.
399 A Lectisternium first celebrated at Rome.
397 The Lake of Alba drained by the Romans.
396 Syracuse unsuccessfully besieged by the Carthaginians.
391 Marcus Furius Camillus Dictator at Rome. Veii taken.
387 Dishonourable Peace of Antalcidas between the Spartans and Persians.
385 Rome taken by the Gauls under Brennus.
382 Phœbidas, the Spartan, seizes the Citadel of Thebes.
380 Pelopidas and Epaminondas deliver Thebes from the Lacedæmonians.
371 Battle of Leuctra, in which the Lacedæmonians are defeated by the Thebans under Epaminondas.
364 Pelopidas defeats the Tyrant of Pheræa, but is killed in battle.
363 Battle of Matinea, in which Epaminondas is killed.
362 Curtius leaps into a Gulf in the Forum at Rome.
361 Darius Ochus (or Artaxerxes III.) King of Persia. According to Blair, 358.
358 War of the Allies against Athens.
— Philip of Macedon takes Amphipolis, Pydna, and Potidea.
357 Dion overcomes the party of Dionysius at Syracuse.
356 Alexander the Great born at Pella in Macedonia.
— The Temple of Diana, at Ephesus, burnt by Erostratus.
— The Phocian or Sacred War begins in Greece.
— Philip conquers the Thracians, Pæonians, and Illyrians.
350 Darius Ochus subdues Egypt.
348 Philip of Macedon takes Olynthus.

B. C.
348 End of the Sacred War.
347 Dionysius restored at Syracuse, after an exile of ten years.
346 Philip admitted a Member of the Amphictyonic Council.
343 Syracuse taken by Timoleon, and Dionysius the Tyrant finally banished.
— The War between the Romans and Samnites, which led to the conquest of all Italy.
340 The Carthaginians defeated near Agrigentum.
— P. Decius devotes himself for his country.
338 Battle of Cheronæa gained by Philip over the Athenians and Thebans.
337 Philip chosen Generalissimo of the Greeks.
336 Philip murdered by Pausanias.
— Alexander the Great King of Macedon.
— Alexander the Great destroys Thebes.
335 Darius III. (Codomannus) King of Persia.
— Alexander chosen Generalissimo by the States of Greece.
334 Alexander defeats the Persians on the banks of the Granicus.
333 The Persians defeated by Alexander at Issus.
332 Alexander conquers Egypt, and takes Tyre.
331 Darius defeated by Alexander at Arbela.
330 Darius Codomannus killed. End of the Persian Empire.
— Alexander takes possession of Susa, and sets fire to the Palace of Persepolis.
328 Alexander passes into India, defeats Porus, founds several cities, penetrates to the Ganges.
— The Voyage of Nearchus from the Indus to the Euphrates.
325 Papirius Cursor, Dictator at Rome, triumphs over the Samnites.
324 Alexander the Great dies at Babylon, at the age of thirty-three.
321 The Samnites make the Roman Army pass under the yoke at Caudium.
320 Ptolemy carries 100,000 Jews captives into Egypt.
317 Agathocles Tyrant of Syracuse.
312 Era of the Selucidæ.
311 Cassander, Lysimachus, and Ptolemy, conclude a peace with Antigonus.
304 Demetrius besieges Rhodes.
303 Demetrius restores the Greek Cities to their liberty.
301 Battle of Ipsus in Phrygia, in which Antigonus is defeated and slain.
— Fabius Maximus and Valerius Corvus Dictators.
300 Seleucus founds Antioch, Edessa, and Laodicea.
298 Athens taken by Demetrius Poliorcetes.
294 Seleucus resigns his Wife Stratonice to his son Antiochus.
286 Law of Hortensius, by which the decrees of the people were allowed the same force as those of the senate.
285 The Astronomical Era of Dionysius of Alexandria.
284 Ptolemy Philadelphus King of Egypt.
283 The Library of Alexandria founded.
281 Commencement of the Achæan League.
280 Pyrrhus invades Italy.
— Antiochus Soter King of Syria.
277 The Translation of the Septuagint made by order of Ptolemy Philadelphus. Playfair, 285.
— Antigonus Gonatus reigned in Macedon thirty-six years.
275 Pyrrhus unsuccessful against the Carthaginians in Sicily.
274 Pyrrhus, totally defeated by the Romans near Beneventum, evacuates Italy.
272 The Samnites finally subdued by the Romans.
266 Silver Money is coined at Rome for the first time.
265 The Citizens of Rome numbered at 292,224.
264 The first Punic War begins. The Chronicle of Paros composed.

B. C.
260 Provincial Quæstors instituted at Rome.
— First Naval Victory obtained by the Romans under the Consul Duilius.
255 Regulus defeated and taken prisoner by the Carthaginians under Xantippus.
253 Manasseh chosen High Priest of the Jews.
251 Great Victory of Metellus over Asdrubal.
250 The Romans besiege Lilybœum; are defeated by Hamilcar.
241 End of the first Punic War.
— Attalus King of Pergamus succeeds Eumenes.
240 Comedies are first acted at Rome.
235 The Temple of Janus shut the first time since the reign of Numa.
228 Hamilcar killed in Spain.
225 Great Victory of the Romans over the Gauls.
219 Hannibal takes Saguntum.
218 The second Punic War begins.
217 Hannibal defeats the Romans under Flaminius.
— Fabius Maximus Dictator.
216 Battle of Cannæ, in which the Romans are totally defeated by Hannibal.
212 Philip II. of Macedon defeats the Ætolians.
— Marcellus takes Syracuse, after a siege of two years.
211 Capua surrenders to the Romans.
— Antiochus the Great conquers Judæa.
210 Asdrubal vanquished in Spain by the Scipios.
— Publius Scipio, sent into Spain, takes New-Carthage.
206 Philopœmen Prætor of the Achæans.
203 The Carthaginians recall Hannibal to Africa.
— Sophonisba poisoned by Massinissa.
201 Syphax led in triumph to Rome by P. Scipio.
197 Philip defeated by the Romans at Cynocephalæ.
196 The Battle of Zama, and end of the second Punic War.
190 The Romans enter Asia, and defeat Antigonus at Magnesia.
183 The elder Cato Censor at Rome.
173 War between the Romans and Perseus King of Macedon
172 Antiochus defeats the generals of Ptolemy in Egypt.
170 Antiochus Epiphanes takes and plunders Jerusalem.
169 Terence's Comedies performed at Rome.
167 Perseus defeated by Paulus Æmilius, and brought prisoner to Rome. End of the kingdom of Macedon.
166 Judas Maccabeus drives the Syrians out of Judea.
164 The Roman Citizens numbered at 327,032.
149 The third Punic War begins.
147 Metellus defeats the Achæans.
146 Corinth taken by the Consul Mummius.
— Carthage taken and destroyed by the Romans.
137 The Romans shamefully defeated by the Numantines.
135 The History of the Apocrypha ends.
— Antiochus besieges Jerusalem.
133 Tiberius Gracchus put to death.
— Numantia taken. Pergamus becomes a Roman Province.
121 Caius Gracchus killed.
113 Carbo the Consul drives the Cimbri and Teutones out of Italy.
111 The Jugurthine War begins.
108 Marius defeats Jugurtha.
103 Jugurtha starved to death at Rome.
102 Marius defeats the Teutones and Cimbri.
91 The War of the Allies against the Romans.
90 Sylla defeats the Marsi, Peligni, Samnites, &c.
89 The Mithridatic War begins.
88 Civil War between Marius and Sylla. Sylla takes possession of Rome.

B. C.
86 Mithridates King of Pontus defeated by Sylla.
83 Sylla defeats Norbanus. The Capitol burnt.
82 Sylla perpetual Dictator. His horrible Proscription.
80 Julius Cæsar makes his first Campaign.
79 Cicero's first Oration for Roscius.
78 Sylla resigns all power, and dies.
77 The War of Sertorius.
72 Lucullus repeatedly defeats Mithridates, and reduces Pontus to a Roman province.
70 Crassus and Pompey chosen Consuls at Rome.
63 Victories of Pompey. He takes Jerusalem, and restores Hyrcanus to the government of Judea.
62 Catiline's Conspiracy quelled at Rome by Cicero.
61 Pompey enters Rome in triumph.
59 The first Triumvirate; Pompey, Crassus, and Cæsar.
— Cæsar proposes a new Agrarian Law.
58 Clodius the Tribune procures the Banishment of Cicero.
57 Cæsar defeats Ariovistus in Gaul.
— Cicero brought back from Exile with high honour.
55 Cæsar lands in Britain, and makes a short campaign.
54 Cæsar invades Britain a second time, and conquers part of it.
53 Crassus killed in Mesopotamia.
52 Milo defended by Cicero for the slaughter of Clodius.
49 Cæsar passes the Rubicon, and marches to Rome.
— Commencement of the Era of Antioch. October, 49 A. C.
48 Battle of Pharsalia, in which Pompey is defeated.
— Pompey slain in Egypt.
— The Alexandrian Library of 400,000 volumes burnt.
46 Cato besieged in Utica, kills himself.
45 The Kalendar reformed by Julius Cæsar, by introducing the Solar Year instead of the Lunar. The first Julian Year began January 1, 45 A. C.
44 Julius Cæsar killed in the Senate-House.
— Octavius, grand-nephew and heir of Julius Cæsar, comes to Rome, and is opposed at first by Antony.
43 Second Triumvirate; Octavius, Mark Antony, and Lepidus.
42 Battle of Philippi, in which Brutus and Cassius are defeated.
40 Herod marries Mariamne, daughter of Hyrcanus, and obtains from the Romans the Government of Judæa.
34 Antony divides Armenia among the children of Cleopatra.
33 Mauritania reduced into a Roman Province.
32 War declared by the Senate against Antony and Cleopatra.
31 Battle of Actium and end of the Roman Commonwealth.
— Octavius Emperor of Rome.
30 Death of Mark Antony and Cleopatra. Alexandria taken by Octavius.
Octavius receives the title of Augustus.
23 Death of Marcellus. Agrippa in Spain.
20 Porus King of India sends an Embassy to Augustus.
17 Agustus revives the Secular Games.
15 The Rheti and Vindelenci defeated by Drusus.
10 The Temple of Janus shut by Augustus for a short time.
8 Augustus corrects an Error of the Roman Kalendar.
– Death of Mæcenas.
5 Augustus ordains a Census of all the people in the Roman Empire.
4 JESUS CHRIST is born four years before the commencement of the vulgar era.

A. D.
9 The Roman Legions under Varus, destroyed in Germany.
– Ovid the Poet banished to Tomos.

A. D.

14 Tiberius Emperor of Rome.
19 Germanicus dies at Antioch.
— Tiberius banishes the Jews from Rome.
26 John the Baptist preaches in Judæa the Coming of the Messiah.
27 Tiberius retires to the island of Capreæ.
— Pilate made Governor of Judæa.
31 Sejanus disgraced, and put to death by Tiberius.
33 ¶ St. Peter first Pope.
— JESUS CHRIST is crucified.
35 The Conversion of St. Paul.
37 Caligula Emperor of Rome.
39 St. Matthew writes his Gospel.
40 The name of Christians first given to the Disciples of Christ at Antioch.
41 Claudius Emperor of Rome.
— Herod persecutes the Christians, and imprisons Peter.
42 Sergius Paulus, proconsul, converted by St Paul.
43 Expedition of Claudius into Britain.
44 St. Mark writes his Gospel.
45 Vespasian in Britain.
47 The *Ludi Sæculares* (secular games) performed at Rome.
48 Messalina put to death by Claudius, who marries Agrippina the mother of Nero.
50 St. Paul preaches in the Areopagus at Athens.
51 Caractacus, the British King, is carried prisoner to Rome.
54 Nero Emperor of Rome.
55 Britannicus poisoned by Nero.
59 Nero puts to death his mother Agrippina.
60 Suetonius Paulinus defeats the Britons.
61 The Britons, under Queen Boadicea, defeat the Romans.
64 The first Persecution of the Christians raised by Nero.
— Rome set on fire by Nero.
66 Barreas Sorranus and Thrasea Paetus put to death by Nero.
— ¶ Pope Linus.
67 Massacre of the Jews by Florus, at Cæsarea, Ptolemais, and Alexandria.
— St. Peter and St. Paul put to death.
— Josephus, the Jewish historian, governor of Galilee.
— ¶ Pope St. Clement.
68 Galba Emperor of Rome.
69 Otho Emperor of Rome.
— Vitellius Emperor of Rome.
70 Vespasian Emperor of Rome.
— Jerusalem taken and destroyed by Titus.
77 ¶ Pope St. Cletus.
78 A great Pestilence at Rome, 10,000 dying in one day.
79 Titus Emperor of Rome.
— Herculaneum and Pompeii destroyed by an Eruption of Vesuvius.
80 Conquests of Agricola in Britain.
81 Domitian Emperor of Rome.
83 ¶ Pope Anacletus.
89 Apollonius of Tyanea defends himself before Domitian against an accusation of Treason.
95 Dreadful Persecution of the Christians at Rome, and in the provinces.
— St. John writes his Apocalypse, and his Gospel.
96 Nerva Emperor of Rome.

A. D.
96 ¶ Pope Evaristus.
98 Trajan Emperor of Rome.
— Trajan forbids the Christian Assemblies.
100
103 The Dacians subdued by Trajan.
107 Trajan's Victories in Asia.
108 St. Ignatius devoured by wild Beasts at Rome.
— ¶ Pope Alexander I.
115 The Jews in Cyreno murder 200,000 Greeks and Romans.
117 ¶ Pope Sixtus I.
118 Adrian Emperor of Rome.
— Persecution of the Christians renewed by Adrian, but afterward suspended.
120 Adrian's Wall built across Britain.
127 ¶ Pope Telesphorus.
131 Adrian visits Egypt and Syria.
132 Adrian publishes his perpetual Edict or Code of the Laws.
135 The Romans destroyed 580,000 Jews in Judæa.
137 Adrian rebuilds Jerusalem by the name of Ælia Capitolina.
138 ¶ Pope Hyginus.
— Antonius Pius Emperor of Rome.
142 ¶ Pope Pius I.
150 ¶ Pope Anicetus.
154 Justin Martyr publishes his Apology for the Christians.
161 Marcus Aurelius Antoninus and Lucius Verus Emperors of Rome.
162 ¶ Pope Soter.
167 Polycarp and Pionices suffered Martyrdom in Asia.
169 War with the Marcomanni.
171 Death of Verus. Marcus Aurelius sole Emperor.
— ¶ Pope Eleutherius.
177 Persecution of the Christians at Lyons.
180 Commodus Emperor of Rome.
185 ¶ Pope Victor I.
189 The Saracens defeat the Romans. This people first mentioned in history.
193 Pertinax Emperor of Rome. Didius Julianus purchases the Empire.
— Pescennius Niger declared Emperor in the East.
— Septimius Severus Emperor of Rome.
194 Niger defeated by Severus, and put to death.
195 Byzantium besieged, surrenders to Severus.
196 Albinus proclaimed Emperor in Britain.
197 Albinus, defeated by Severus, kills himself.
— ¶ Pope Zephyrinus.
200
202 The fifth Persecution against the Christians, principally in Egypt.
208 Severus, with his sons Caracalla and Geta, in Britain.
209 The Caledonians repulsed, and a Wall built between the rivers Forth and Clyde.
211 Caracalla and Geta Emperors of Rome.
212 Caracalla murders Geta.
217 Caracalla put to death.
— Macrinus Emperor of Rome.
— ¶ Pope Calixtus I.
218 Heliogabalus Emperor of Rome.

A. D.
222 Alexander Severus Emperor of Rome.
— A Tribute paid by the Romans to the Goths
— ¶ Pope Urban I.
226 The Persians totally defeated by Alexander Severus.
230 ¶ Pope Pontianus.
235 ¶ Pope Anterus.
— Maximinus assassinates Alexander Severus, and is proclaimed Emperor of Rome.
236 The sixth Persecution of the Christians.
— ¶ Pope Fabianus.
237 Maximinus defeats the Dacians and Sarmatians.
238 Maximus and Balbinus Emperors of Rome.
— Gordian Emperor of Rome.
242 Gordian defeats the Persians under Sapor.
244 Philip the Arabian Emperor of Rome.
248 The Secular Games celebrated at Rome. Pompey's Theatre burnt.
— St. Cyprian elected Bishop of Carthage.
249 Decius Emperor of Rome.
250 The seventh Persecution of the Christians under Decius.
— ¶ Pope St. Cornelius.
251 Vibius Volusianus Emperor of Rome.
— Gallus Emperor of Rome.
252 ¶ Pope Lucius I.
253 The Goths, Burgundians, &c. make an Irruption into Mœsia and Pannonia.
254 Valerianus Emperor of Rome.
— ¶ Pope Stephen I.
257 The eighth Persecution of the Christians
— ¶ Pope Sixtus II.
259 The Persians ravage Syria.
— ¶ Pope Dionysius.
260 Gallienus Emperor of Rome.
— The Temple of Diana at Ephesus burnt.
261 Sapor, the Persian, takes Antioch, Tarsus, and Cæsarea.
267 The Heruli invade and ravage Greece.
268 Claudius II. Emperor of Rome.
269 The Goths and Heruli, to the number of 320,000, defeated by Claudius.
— ¶ Pope Felix I.
270 Aurelian Emperor of Rome.
271 The Alemanni and Marcomanni ravage the Empire.
272 The ninth Persecution of the Christians.
273 Zenobia Queen of Palmyra defeated by Aurelian at Edessa.
274 ¶ Pope Eutychianus.
275 Tacitus Emperor of Rome.
276 Florianus Emperor of Rome.
277 Probus Emperor of Rome.
282 Carus Emperor of Rome defeats the Quadi and Sarmatians.
282 Carinus, Numerianus, Emperors of Rome.
283 ¶ Pope Caius.
— Fingal King of Morven died.
284 Diocletian Emperor of Rome.
286 The Empire attacked by the Northern Nations.
— Carausius usurps the government of Britain, and reigns seven years.

A. D.
290 The Gregorian and Hermogenian Codes published.
292 Partition of the Empire by Diocletian between two Emperors and two Cæsars.
295 ¶ Pope Marcellinus.
— Alexandria in Egypt taken by Diocletian.
300
302 The tenth Persecution of the Christians.
304 ¶ Pope Marcellus.
— Resignation of Diocletian and Maximian
— Galerius and Constantius Emperors of Rome.
305 Maximinus Emperor of Rome.
306 Constantine the Great Emperor of Rome. He stops the Persecution of the Christians.
310 ¶ Pope Eusebius.
— ¶ Pope Melchiades.
314 ¶ Pope Sylvester.
325 Constantine abolishes the Combats of Gladiators.
— He assembles the first General Council at Nice, where the Doctrines of Arius are condemned.
326 St. Athanasius, Bishop of Alexandria, introduces Monarchism in the Roman Empire.
329 Constantine removes the Seat of Empire to Constantinople.
336 ¶ Pope Marcus.
337 ¶ Pope Julius I.
— Death of Constantine. The Empire divided among his three Sons.
— Constantine II., Constans, and Constantius, Emperors of Rome.
352 ¶ Pope Liberius.
356 ¶ Pope Felix I.
357 The Germans defeated by Julian at Strasburg.
358 ¶ Pope Felix II.
361 Julian Emperor of Rome. He abjures Christianity, is elected Pontifex Maximus, and attempts fruitlessly to rebuild the Temple of Jerusalem.
363 Jovian Emperor of Rome.
364 Valentinian Emperor of the West.
— Valens Emperer of the East.
366 ¶ Pope Damasus.
367 Gratian Emperor of the West.
375 Valentinian II. Emperor of the West.
376 Valens allows the Goths to settle in Thrace.
378 The Goths advance to the Gates of Constantinople. Death of Valens.
379 Theodosius the Great Emperor of the East.
381 Second General Council held at Constantinople.
383 The Huns overrun Mesopotamia; are defeated by the Goths.
384 Symmachus pleads the cause of Paganism against St. Ambrose in the Senate.
385 ¶ Pope Syricius.
392 Theodosius Emperor of the West and East.
395 Arcadius Emperor of the East, and Honorius of the West.
— The Huns invade the Eastern Provinces.
397 St. Chrysostom chosen Patriarch of Constantinople.
399 ¶ Pope Anastasius.
— Gainas the Goth obtains Honours from Arcadius.

A. D.
400
— Alaric the Goth ravages Italy.
401 ¶ Pope Innocent I.
403 Stilicho, General of Honorius, defeats Alaric near Pollentia.
404 Fergus I. King of Scotland, supposed to have begun his reign.
406 The Vandals, Alans, &c. invade France and Spain.
408 Theodosius II. Emperor of the East.
410 Rome sacked and burnt by Alaric. Death of Alaric
411 The Vandals settled in Spain.
416 The Secular Games celebrated at Rome.
— The Pelagian Heresy condemned by the Bishops of Africa.
417 ¶ Pope Zozimus.
418 ¶ Pope Boniface I.
420 *Pharamond first King of the Franks* supposed to have begun his reign.
422 ¶ Pope Cælestinus.
424 Valentinian III. Emperor of the West.
426 The Romans withdraw finally from Britain.
428 Ætius, the Roman General, defeats the Franks and Goths.
431 The third General Council held at Ephesus.
432 ¶ Pope Sixtus III.
435 The Theodosian Code published.
439 Genseric the Vandal invades and plunders Italy.
— Eudocia the Empress, wife of Theodosius, retires to Jerusalem.
— Carthage taken by the Vandals. Kingdom of the Vandals in Africa.
440 ¶ Pope Leo the Great.
442 Theodosius forced to make a disgraceful Peace with Attila the Hun.
— Attila causes his brother Bleda to be murdered.
445 The Britons in vain solicit the Romans to assist them against the Picts and Scots.
445 Attila the Hun overruns Illyrium, Thrace, Dacia, Mœsia, and Scythia
448 The Romans engage to pay a heavy Tribute of Gold to Attila.
449 *Merovæus King of the Franks.*
450 Marcian Emperor of the East.
— Attila ravages Germany and France.
451 Theodoric King of the Visigoths killed in battle. The Huns defeated by Ætius.
— The Saxons arrive in Britain under Hengist and Horsa.
— The fourth General Council held at Chalcedon.
452 Foundation of the city of Venice.
455 Petronius Maximus Emperor of the West.
— Avitus Emperor of the West.
— Rome taken and plundered by Genseric the Vandal.
456 *Childeric King of the Franks.*
457 Leo the Great Emperor of the East.
— Majorianus Emperor of the West.
461 Severus Emperor of the West, raised by Ricimer.
— ¶ Pope Hilarius.
467 Anthemius Emperor of the West.
468 Eric King of the Visigoths drives the Romans out of Spain.
— ¶ Pope Simplicius.
470 Ælla the Saxon takes possession of the Kingdom of Sussex.
471 Ælla defeats all the British Princes.
472 Great Eruption of Mount Vesuvius, seen from Constantinople.
— Olybius Emperor of the West.

A. D.

473 Glycerius, Emperor of the West, degraded and stripped by
474 Julius Nepos Emperor of the West.
— Zeno Emperor of the East.
— Augustulus Romulus Emperor of the West, raised by his father Orestes, General of Nepos.
476 Orestes put to death by Odoacer King of the Heruli.
— Rome taken by Odoacer now king of Italy.
— Extinction of the Western Empire of the Romans, 507 years from the battle of Actium, and 1224 from the building of Rome.
481 *Clovis King of the Franks.*
— Zeno makes Theodoric, the Ostrogoth, his General, and creates him Consul.
483 ¶ Pope Felix III.
485 Battle of Soissons gained by Clovis.
488 Theodoric, the Ostrogoth, entirely defeats Odoacer, and is acknowledged King of Italy by the Emperor Zeno.
490 The Burgundians, under Gondebald, ravage Italy.
— Ireland, called the Isle of Saints, famous for its Schools.
491 Anastasius Emperor of the East.
493 Odoacer put to death by Theodoric.
496 ¶ Pope Anastasius II.
497 Clovis and the Franks converted to Christianity.
498 ¶ Pope Symmachus.
499 Alliance between Clovis and Theodoric the Great
500
— Gondebald, the Burgundian, becomes tributary to Clovis.
501 The Burgundian Laws published by Gondebald.
502 Cabades King of Persia ravages part of the Eastern Empire.
504 The Eastern Empire makes peace with Cabades.
507 Clovis defeats Alaric the Visigoth, and receives a congratulatory embassy, with a diadem, from Anastasius.
508 Theodoric the Great defeats Clovis in the battle of Arles, and then makes peace with him.
510 Clovis makes Paris the capital of the kingdom of the Franks.
511 Death of Clovis. Division of his kingdom among his four sons.
— *Childebert, Thierry, Clotaire, and Clodomir, Kings of the Franks.*
512 The Heruli allowed by Anastasius to settle in Thrace.
514 ¶ Pope Hormisdas.
515 Arthur king of the Britons supposed to have begun his reign.
516 The Computation of Time by the Christian Æra introduced by Dionysius the Monk.
517 The Getæ ravage Illyrium, Macedonia, and Epirus.
518 Justin I. Emperor of the East raised from obscurity.
519 Justin restores the Orthodox Bishops, and condemns the Eutychians.
— Cabades King of Persia proposes that Justin should adopt his son Cosroes, and makes war on a refusal.
523 ¶ Pope John I.
525 The Arian Bishops deposed by Justin, and this act highly resented by Theodoric.
— Antioch and many other cities almost destroyed by an earthquake, and rebuilt by Justin, who adopts his nephew Justinian.
526 Theodoric puts to death Boethius and Symmachus.
— ¶ Pope Felix IV.
527 Justinian I. Emperor of the East.
529 Belisarius, General of Justinian, defeats the Persians.
— The Books of the Civil Law published by Justinian.
530 ¶ Pope Boniface II.

A. D.

532 Justinian congratulates Cosroes on succeeding to the throne of Persia, and concludes a perpetual peace with him.
— Great Insurrection at Constantinople quelled with prodigious slaughter by Belisarius.
533 Athalaric King of the Ostrogoths dies, and is succeeded by his mother Amalasonta.
— ¶ Pope John II.
534 *Theodobert King of Metz.*
— Belisarius defeats Gelimer and the Vandals in Africa.
535 ¶ Pope Agapetus.
536 ¶ Pope Sylvester.
537 Belisarius subdues the Ostrogoths in Italy, and takes Rome.
538 ¶ Pope Vigilius.
540 Belisarius refuses to accept the crown of Italy.
543 Totila, the Goth, recovers Italy from the Romans.
547 Totila takes and plunders Rome.
548 *Theobald King of Metz.*
549 Rome retaken by Belisarius.
550 Commencement of the kingdom of Poland under Lechus.
— Rome recovered by Totila.
551 The manufacture of Silk introduced into Europe.
553 Totila defeated by Narses the Eunuch, and put to death.
555 ¶ Pope Pelagius I.
558 The Huns, breaking into Thrace, are defeated by Belisarius.
559 Belisarius degraded, and ungratefully treated by Justinian.
— *Clotaire sole King of France.*
560 ¶ Pope John III.
— Belisarius restored to his Honours and Command.
562 *Caribert, Gontran Sigebert, and Chilperic, Kings of France.*
565 Justin II. Emperor of Rome.
566 Narses, recalled from Italy, invites the Lombards to take possession of the country.
568 Italy conquered by the Lombards.
571 Birth of Mahomet the false Prophet.
574 ¶ Pope Benedict I.
578 Tiberius II. Emperor of the East.
— ¶ Pope Pelagius II.
580 The Latin Tongue ceases to be spoken in Italy about this time.
582 Maurice Emperor of the East.
584 *Clotaire II. King of Soissons.*
590 Antioch again destroyed, with 30,000 inhabitants, by an Earthquake.
— ¶ Pope Gregory the Great.
596 *Thierry II. and Theodobert II. Kings of Paris and Austrasia.*
— Augustine the Monk converts the Saxons to Christianity.

600

602 Phocas Emperor of the East acknowledges the Supremacy of the Popes.
604 ¶ Pope Sabinianus.
607 ¶ Pope Boniface IV.
— The Pantheon at Rome Dedicated to God, the Virgin, and the Saints.
608 ¶ Pope Boniface IV.
609 The Jews of Antioch massacre the Christians.
611 Heraclius Emperor of the East.
613 The French Maires du Palais first introduced by Clotaire as Regents.
614 *Clotaire II. sole King of France.*
— Queen Brunechilda, accused of numberless crimes, is put to death by Clotaire II.

A. D.
615 ¶ Pope Deus-dedit.
616 Jerusalem taken by the Persians under Cosroes II.
618 ¶ Pope Boniface V.
622 Era of the Hegyra, or Flight of Mahomet from Mecca to Medina.
625 ¶ Pope Honorius I.
— The Persians under Cosroes II., with the Huns, Abari, and Sclavonians, besiege Constantinople.
628 *Dagobert and Charibert Kings of France.*
632 Death of Mahomet. Abubeker succeeds him as Caliph of the Saracens.
633 Abubeker dies, and is succeeded by Omar in the Caliphate.
636 Jerusalem taken by Omar and the Saracens, who keep possession of it 463 years.
638 *Sigebert II. and Clovis II. Kings of France.*
640 ¶ Pope Severinus.
— ¶ Pope John IV.
— The Library of Alexandria, founded by Ptolemy Philadelphus, is burnt by the Saracens.
641 Constantine, Emperor of the East for a few months, poisoned by his step-mother.
— Heraclionas and Tiberius III. Emperors of the East.
642 Constans, son of Constantine, Emperor of the East.
— ¶ Pope Theodorus.
645 Otman succeeds Omar in the Caliphate.
648 Cyprus taken by the Saracens under Mawia.
649 ¶ Pope Martin I.
653 The Saracens take Rhodes, and destroy the Colossus.
654 *Childeric II. King of Austrasia.*
— ¶ Pope Eugenius I.
655 Ali Caliph of Arabia. Mawia Caliph of Egypt.
657 ¶ Pope Vitalianus.
658 The Saracens obtain Peace of the Emperor Constans, and agree to pay a yearly tribute.
668 Constantius V. (Pogonatus) Emperor of the East.
669 Sicily ravaged by the Saracens.
672 ¶ Pope Adeodatus.
— The Saracens ineffectually besiege Constantinople. Their fleet destroyed by the Greek Fire used by Callinicus.
675 The Saracens attempt to land in Spain, but are repulsed by Wamba King of the Visgoths.
676 ¶ Pope Donus.
679 *Thierry IV. King of all France.*
— ¶ Pope Agatho.
680 The sixth General or Œcumenical Council of Constantinople.
682 ¶ Pope Leo II.
684 ¶ Pope Benedict II.
685 ¶ Pope John V.
— Justinian II. Emperor of the East.
— The Britons, totally subdued by the Saxons, retreat into Wales and Cornwall.
686 ¶ Pope Canon.
686 Ceadwalla King of Wessex subdues Sussex and Kent.
687 ¶ Pope Sergius.
690 Pepin Heristel, *Maire du Palais*, defeats Thierry, and acquires the chief power in France.
692 *Clovis III. King of France.*
694 Justinian II. dethroned, mutilated, and banished by Leontius.
695 *Gildebert III. King of France.*

A. D.
695 Leontius Emperor of the East. Dethroned and mutilated by
697 Apsimar or Tiberius Emperor of the East.
699 The Saracens defeated by John the Patrician.
700
— The Saracens again defeated with great slaughter by Heraclius, brother of Tiberius.
701 ¶ Pope John VI.
704 Justinian escapes from prison, defeats Tiberius, and is restored to the throne.
707 Justinian II. defeated by the Bulgarians.
708 ¶ Pope Sisinnius.
— ¶ Pope Constantine.
711 Philippicus Bardanes Emperor of the East.
— *Dagobert III. King of France.*
713 Anastasius II. Emperor of the East.
— Spain conquered by the Saracens under Muca, the general of the Caliph Walid.
714 ¶ Pope Gregory II.
— Theodosius Emperor of the East.
— Charles Martel, *Maire du Palais*, governs all France for 26 years.
716 *Childeric II. King of France.*
— Leo (the Isurian) Emperor of the East.
720 Omar II. besieges Constantinople without success.
— *Thierry IV. King of France.*
726 Leo forbids the Worship of Images, which occasions a great rebellion of his subjects. The Pope defends the practice.
728 Leo orders Pope Gregory to be seized and sent to Constantinople; but the order is frustrated, and Leo confiscates the Imperial Domains of Sicily and Calabria.
729 The Saracens ravage Gallia Narbonnensis.
731 ¶ Pope Gregory III.
732 Charles Martel defeats the Saracens between Tours and Poictiers.
736 Leo persecutes the Monks.
737 Death of Pelagius, who preserved the Christian Monarchy in Asturia.
740 The Duchy of Spoleto seized by the Normans. Recovered by the Pope.
741 ¶ Pope Zacharv.
742 *Childeric III. King of France*
— Constantine (Copronymus) Emperor of the East. An enemy to images and saint worship.
743 He defeats and puts to death Artabazdus, who had seized Constantinople.
745 He destroys the fleet of the Saracens.
749 The Race of the Abassidæ become Caliphs of the Saracens.
751 *Pepin (le Bref) King of France, founder of the second or Carlovingian Race.*
752 ¶ Pope Stephen III.
753 Astolphus King of the Lombards erects the Dukedom of Ravenna, and claims from the Pope the Dukedom of Rome.
754 Pope Stephen requests the assistance of Pepin against the Lombards.
— Pepin invades Italy, and strips Astolphus of his new possessions, conferring them on the Pope as a temporal sovereignty.
— Almanzor Caliph of the Saracens, a great encourager of learning.
756 Desiderius, or Dider, proclaimed King of the Lombards, with the Pope's consent.
— Abdalrahman I. takes the title of King of Cordova, and is the founder of the splendid dominion of the Moors in Spain.

A. D.
757 ¶ Pope Paul I. renews the alliance with Desiderius.
759 ¶ Pope Stephen III. quarrels with Desiderius.
762 Almanzor builds Bagdat, and makes it the seat of the Empire of the Caliphs.
767 The Turks ravage Asia Minor.
768 *Charles (the Great) and Carloman, Kings of France.*
— ¶ Pope Stephen IV.
770 Constantine dissolves the Monasteries in the East.
772 *Charlemagne sole Monarch of France.*
— He makes war against the Saxons.
— ¶ Pope Adrian I.
774 Charlemagne defeats Desiderius, and puts an end to the kingdom of the Lombards, which had subsisted 206 years.
775 Leo IV. Emperor of the East.
778 Battle of Roncezvalles between the Christians and Moors in Spain, where Rolando is killed.
779 Charlemagne conquers Navarre and Sardinia.
781 Constantine (Porphyrogenitus) Emperor of the East.
— Irene, Empress, is Regent in her son's minority, and keeps him in entire subjection.
— She re-establishes the worship of images.
785 Charlemagne subdues the Saxons.
— Haroun Alraschid Caliph of the Saracens.
— He invades and ravages a part of the Empire.
786 Constantine assumes the government of the Empire, and imprisons his mother.
787 The Danes first land in England.
— The seventh General Council, or second of Nice.
788 Irene puts to death her son Constantine, and is proclaimed sole Empress.
793 Irene proposes to marry Charlemagne, which being disapproved by her subjects, she is dethroned, and confined to a monastery.
— Nicephorus Emperor of the East.
794 Charlemagne defeats and extirpates the Huns.
— ¶ Pope Leo III.
797 The Saracens ravage Cappadocia, Cyprus, Rhodes, &c.
— Nicephorus associates his son Saturacius in the Empire.
800
— New Empire of the West. Charlemagne crowned Emperor at Rome.
807 Haroun Alraschid courts the alliance of Charlemagne.
811 Michael (Curopalates) Emperor of the East.
813 Leo (the Armenian) Emperor of the East.
— Almamon, Caliph of the Saracens, a great encourager of learning.
814 *Lewis (le Debonnaire) Emperor of France.*
816 The Eastern Empire ravaged by Earthquakes, Famine, Conflagrations, &c.
816 ¶ Pope Stephen V.
817 ¶ Pope Pascal I.
— Lewis (le Deb.) divides the Empire among his sons.
821 Michael (Balbus or the Stammerer) Emperor of the East.
824 ¶ Pope Eugene II.
827 Egbert unites the kingdoms of the Saxon Heptarchy. Beginning of the kingdom of England.
— ¶ Pope Valentine.
828 Gregory IV.
829 Theophilus Emperor of the East.

A. D.

838 **Ethelwolf** King of England.
— The Scots under Kenneth entirely subdue the Picts.
840 *LOTHARIUS* Emperor of Germany.
— *Charles (the Bald) King of France.*
841 Lotharius defeated by his two brothers in the battle of Fontenai, and deposed.
842 *LEWIS* (of Bavaria) Emperor of Germany.
— Michael III. Emperor of the East.
843 The Normans plunder the city of Rouen.
844 ¶ Pope Sergius III.
845 The Normans plunder Hamburgh, and penetrate into Germany.
847 ¶ Pope Leo IV.
848 The Venetian Fleet destroyed by the Saracens.
851 ¶ Pope Joan supposed to have filled the Papal chair for two years.
— Basilius associated Emperor of the East.
855 *LEWIS II.* Emperor of Germany.
857 **Ethelbald** and **Ethelbert** Kings of England.
858 ¶ Pope Nicholas I.
866 **Ethelred** King of England.
867 The Danes ravage England.
— Basilius sole Emperor of the East.
— ¶ Pope Adrian II.
— Potius, Patriarch of Constantinople, excommunicates Pope Adrian.
872 **Alfred** (the Great) King of England.
— ¶ Pope John VIII.
875 *CHARLES* (the Bald) Emperor of Germany.
877 *LEWIS* (the Stammerer) Emperor of Germany and *King of France.*
879 *Lewis III. and Carloman, Kings of France.*
— The kingdom of Arles begins.
880 *CHARLES* (the Gross) Emperor of Germany and *King of France.*
— Ravagers of the Normans in France.
882 ¶ Pope Marinus.
884 ¶ Pope Adrian III.
886 Leo (the Philosopher) Emperor of the East.
— The University of Oxford founded by Alfred.
887 *ARNOLD,* Emperor of Germany.
— The Normans besiege Paris, which is gallantly defended by Bishop Goselin and Count Eudes.
888 *Eudes or Odo King of France.*
890 Alfred the Great composes his Code of Laws, and divides England into Counties, Hundreds, and Tithings.
891 ¶ Pope Formosus.
896 ¶ Pope Stephen VII.
897 ¶ Pope John IX.
898 *Charles III. (the Simple) King of France.*
900
— ¶ Pope Benedict IV.
— *LEWIS IV.* Emperor of Germany.
901 **Edward** (the Elder) succeeds Alfred as King of England.
904 ¶ Pope Leo V.
905 ¶ Pope Sergius III.
911 *CONRAD I.* Emperor of Germany.
— Constantine IX. Emperor of the East.
912 The Normans are established in Normandy under Rollo.
913 ¶ Pope Anastasius.
914 ¶ Pope Landon.
915 Constantine and Romanus Emperors of the East.

A. D.
915 ¶ Pope John X.
— The University of Cambridge founded by Edward the Elder.
920 *HENRY* (the Fowler) Emperor of Germany.
923 *Rodolph King of France.*
925 **Athelstan** King of England.
928 ¶ Pope Leo VI.
929 ¶ Pope Stephen VIII.
931 ¶ Pope John XI.
936 *OTHO* (the Great) Emperor of Germany.
— ¶ Pope Leo VII.
— *Lewis IV.* (*d'Outremer*) *King of France.*
939 ¶ Pope Stephen IX.
940 Howel-Dha, King of Wales, an eminent Lawyer.
941 **Edmund I.** King of England.
943 ¶ Pope Marinus XIII.
946 ¶ Pope Agapet.
948 **Edred** King of England.
954 *Lotharius King of France.*
955 **Edwy** King of England.
956 ¶ Pope John XII.
959 Romanus II. Emperor of the East.
— **Edgar** King of England.
963 ¶ Pope Leo VIII.
— Nicephorus Phocus Emperor of the East.
964 Otho the Great conquers Italy.
965 ¶ Pope John XIII.
967 Antioch recovered from the Saracens by Nicephorus.
969 John Zemisses Emperor of the East.
972 ¶ Pope Benedict VI.
973 *OTHO II.* Emperor of Germany.
974 ¶ Pope Boniface VII.
975 ¶ Pope Benedict VII.
— Basilius and Constantine X. Emperors of the East.
976 **Edward II.** King of England.
978 **Ethelred II.** King of England.
983 *OTHO III.* Emperor of Germany.
984 ¶ Pope John XIV.
986 ¶ Pope John XV.
— *Lewis V.* (*le Faineant*) *King of France.*
— *Hugh Capet, King of France, founder of the Third Race of the French Kings.*
991 The Arabic numeral Ciphers first introduced into Europe.
996 *Robert* (*the Wise*) *King of France.*
— ¶ Pope Gregory V.
999 ¶ Pope Sylvester II.
1000
1002 *HENRY II.* Emperor of Germany.
— Great Massacre of the Danes by Ethelred King of England.
1003 ¶ Pope John XVI.
— ¶ Pope John XVII.
1004 ¶ Pope John XVIII.
1005 Churches first built in the Gothic style.
1009 ¶ Pope Sergius IV.
1012 ¶ Pope Benedict VIII.
1013 The Danes, under Sueno, get possession of England.
1015 The Manichean Doctrines prevalent in France and Italy.
1016 **Edmund II.** (Ironside) King of England.

A. D.

1016 Six Battles fought with the Danes under Canute in England.
1017 **Canute** the Dane (the Great) King of England.
1018 The Normans invade Italy.
1024 ¶ Pope John XIX. or XX.
—— *CONRAD II.* (the Salic) Emperor of Germany.
1025 Musical Characters invented by Guido Aretino.
1028 Romanus Argyrus Emperor of the East.
1031 *Henry I. King of France.*
1033 ¶ Pope Benedict IX.
1034 Michael IV. Emperor of the East.
1036 **Harold II.** (Harefoot) King of England.
1039 *HENRY III.* Emperor of Germany.
—— **Canute II.** or **Hardicanute** King of England.
1040 Macbeth usurps the Throne of Scotland by the murder of Duncan.
1041 **Edward III.** (the Confessor) King of England, restores the Saxon line.
—— Michael (Calaphales) Emperor of the East.
1042 Constantine (Monomachus) Emperor of the East.
1043 The Turks, under Tangrolipix, subdue Persia.
1045 ¶ Pope Gregory VI.
1046 ¶ Pope Clement II.
1048 ¶ Pope Damasus II.
1049 ¶ Pope Leo IX. the first Pope who maintained a regular army.
1054 Theodora Emperor of the East.
—— Pope Leo IX. taken prisoner by the Normans.
1055 ¶ Pope Victor II.
—— The Turks take Bagdat, and overturn the Empire of the Caliphs.
1056 *HENRY IV.* Emperor of Germany.
1057 Malcolm III. (Canmore) King of Scotland.
—— Isaac (Comnenus) Emperor of the East.
—— ¶ Pope Stephen X.
1058 ¶ Pope Nicholas II.
—— The Saracens driven out of Sicily by Robert Guiscard the Norman.
1059 Constantine XII. (Ducas) Emperor of the East.
1060 *Philip I. King of France.*
1061 ¶ Pope Alexander II.
1065 The Turks take Jerusalem from the Saracens.
1066 **Harold II.** King of England reigned nine months.
—— **William** (the Conqueror) King of England.
1068 Romanus Diogenes Emperor of the East.
—— Edgar Atheling seeks refuge in Scotland.
1068 Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling, married to Malcolm King of Scotland.
1070 The Feudal Law introduced into England.
1071 Michael Ducas Emperor of the East.
1073 ¶ Pope Gregory VII.
1076 The Emperor Henry IV. excommunicated and deposed by the Pope.
1078 Nicephorus (Boton) Emperor of the East.
1079 Doomsday-book begun by William the Conqueror.
1081 Alexius I. (Comnenus) Emperor of the East.
—— Henry IV. Emperor besieges Rome.
1084 He is re-crowned Emperor of Germany.
1086 ¶ Pope Victor III.
1087 ¶ Pope Urban II.

A. D.
1087 **William II.** (Rufus) King of England.
1093 St. Margaret Queen of Scotland died.
—— Donald Bane King of Scotland.
1095 Duncan II. King of Scotland.
—— The first Crusade to the Holy Land. Peter the Hermit.
1098 The Crusaders take Antioch.
—— Edgar King of Scotland.
1099 Jerusalem taken by Godfrey of Boulogne. The Knights of St. John instituted.
—— ¶ Pope Pascal II.
1100
—— **Henry I.** (Beauclerc) King of England.
1102 Guiscard of Normandy takes the title of King of Naples.
1104 Baldwin King of Jerusalem takes Ptolemais.
1106 *HENRY V.* Emperor of Germany.
1107 Alexander I. King of Scotland.
1108 *Lewis VI.* (*le Gros*) *King of France.*
1118 ¶ Pope Gelasius II.
—— The order of Knights Templars instituted.
—— John (Comnenus) Emperor of the East.
1119 ¶ Pope Calixtus II.
1124 David I. King of Scotland.
—— ¶ Pope Honorius II.
1125 *LOTHARIUS II.* Emperor of Germany.
1130 ¶ Pope Innocent II.
1135 **Stephen** King of England.
1137 *Lewis VII.* (*le Jeune*) *King of France.* Married to Eleanor of Guienne.
—— The Pandects of the Roman Law discovered at Amalphi.
1138 *CONRAD III.* Emperor of Germany.
—— The Scots, under David I., defeated by the English in the battle of the Standard.
1139 Alphonso I. King of Portugal rescues his kingdom from the Saracens.
1140 The Canon Law first introduced into England.
1141 Stephen King of England taken prisoner in the battle of Lincoln by the troops of Matilda.
1143 He recovers his kingdom.
—— ¶ Pope Cælestinus II.
—— Manuel (Comnenus) Emperor of the East.
1144 ¶ Pope Lucius II.
1145 ¶ Pope Eugene III.
1147 The second Crusade excited by St. Bernard.
1150 The study of the Civil Law revived at Bologna.
1151 The Canon Law is collected by Gratian, a Monk of Bologna.
1152 *FREDERICK I.* (Barbarossa) Emperor of Germany.
1153 Malcolm IV. King of Scotland.
—— ¶ Pope Anastasius IV.
—— Treaty of Winchester. Compromise between King Stephen and Prince Henry.
1154 **Henry II.** (Plantagenet) King of England.
—— ¶ Pope Adrian IV.
—— The parties of the Guelphs and Ghibellines disturb Italy.
1157 The Bank of Venice instituted.
1158 Interview between Henry II. and Malcolm IV. at Carlisle.
1159 ¶ Pope Alexander III.

A. D.
1160 The Albigenses maintain heretical doctrines.
1164 Institution of the order of the Teutonic Knights in Germany.
—— T. Becket condemned by the Council of Clarendon.
1165 William (the Lion) King of Scotland.
1171 T. Becket murdered at Canterbury.
1172 Conquest of Ireland by Henry II.
1180 *Philip Augustus King of France.*
1181 Alexius II. (Comnenus) Emperor of the East.
1183 ¶ Pope Lucius III.
—— Andronicus (Comnenus) Emperor of the East.
1185 ¶ Pope Urban III.
—— Isaac Angelus Emperor of the East.
1187 ¶ Pope Gregory VIII.
—— The city of Jerusalem taken by Saladin.
1188 ¶ Pope Clement III.
1189 **Richard I.** (Cœur de Lion) King of England.
—— The third Crusade under Richard I. and Philip Augustus.
1190 *HENRY VI.* Emperor of Germany.
1191 ¶ Pope Cælestinus III.
1192 Richard I. defeats Saladin in the battle of Ascalon.
—— Guy of Lusignan King of Jerusalem.
1195 Alexius Angelus (the Tyrant) Emperor of the East.
1198 *PHILIP* Emperor of Germany.
—— ¶ Pope Innocent III.
1199 **John** King of England.
1200
1202 The fourth Crusade sets out from Venice.
—— Constantinople taken by the French and Venetians.
1203 Alexius and Murbzuphlus Emperors of the East.
1204 Baldwin I. Emperor of Constantinople, and Theodore I. (Lascaris) Emperor of Nicæa.
—— The Inquisition established by Pope Innocent III.
1206 Henry Emperor of Constantinople.
1208 *OTHO IV.* Emperor of Germany.
—— London incorporated, obtains a charter for electing a Mayor and Magistrates.
1210 Crusade against the Albigenses, under Simon de Montfort.
1212 *FREDERICK II.* Emperor of Germany.
1214 Alexander II. King of Scotland.
1215 Magna Charta signed by King John.
1216 **Henry III.** King of England.
—— Peter and John Ducas Emperors of the East.
1219 Robert Emperor of the East.
—— Damietta taken by the Crusaders
1223 *Lewis VIII. King of France.*
1226 ¶ Pope Honorius III.
—— *St. Lewis IX. King of France.*
1227 ¶ Pope Gregory IX.
—— Gengiskan and the Tartars overrun the Empire of the Saracens.
1228 Baldwin II. French Emperor of Constantinople.
1234 The Inquisition committed to the Dominican Monks.
1237 Russia brought under subjection by the Tartars.
1241 ¶ Pope Cælestinus IV.
1243 ¶ Pope Innocent IV.
1248 The fifth Crusade under St. Lewis.

A. D.

1249 Alexander III. King of Scotland.
1251 *CONRAD IV.* Emperor of Germany.
1254 ¶ Pope Alexander IV.
—— Interregnum in the Empire of Germany, from the death of Conrad IV. in 1254, to the election of Rodolph in 1273.
1255 Theodore II. (Lascaris) Emperor of Nicæa.
1258 Bagdat taken by the Tartars. End of the Empire of the Saracens.
1259 John (Lascaris) Emperor of Nicæa.
1260 Michael (Palæologus) Emperor of Nicæa.
—— The Flagellants preach Baptism by Brood.
1261 ¶ Pope Urban IV.
—— The Greek Emperors recover Constantinople from the French.
1263 The Norwegians invade Scotland, and are defeated by Alexander III. in the battle of Largs.
1264 ¶ Pope Clement IV.
—— The Deputies of Boroughs first summoned to Parliament in England.
—— Henry III. of England taken prisoner in the battle of Lewes.
1265 Charles Count of Anjou King of Sicily.
1270 *Philip III. (the Bold) King of France.*
1271 ¶ Pope Gregory X.
1272 Edward I. (Longshanks) King of England.
1273 *RODOLPH* (of Hapsburg) Emperor of Germany, first of the Austrian Family.
1276 ¶ Pope Innocent V.
—— ¶ Pope Adrian V.
—— ¶ Pope John XXI.
1277 ¶ Pope Nicholas III.
1281 ¶ Pope Martin IV.
1282 The Sicilian Vespers, when 8,000 French were massacred.
1283 Andronicus I. (Palæologus) Emperor of the East.
—— The conquest of Wales by Edward I.
1285 ¶ Pope Honorius IV.
—— *Philip IV. (the Fair) King of France.*
1286 Margaret (of Norway) Queen of Scotland.
1288 ¶ Pope Nicholas IV.
1290 Interregnum in Scotland for two years. Competition between Bruce and Baliol for the crown, decided by Edward I.
1291 Ptolemais taken by the Turks. End of the Crusades.
1292 John Baliol King of Scotland.
—— *ADOLPHUS* (of Nassau) Emperor of Germany.
—— ¶ Pope Cælestinus V.
1293 From this year there is a regular succession of English Parliaments.
1294 ¶ Pope Boniface VIII.
1295 Michael Andronicus Emperor of the East.
1296 Interregnum in Scotland for eight years. Sir William Wallace nobly supports the liberty of his country, defeats the English at Sterling, and drives them out of the kingdom.
1298 Wallace chosen Regent of Scotland, defeated at Falkirk.
—— *ALBERT I.* (of Austria) Emperor of Germany.
—— The present Turkish Empire begins under Ottoman in Bithynia.

1300

1301 Quarrel between Philip the Fair and Pope Boniface VIII.
1302 Comyn and Fraser defeat the English thrice in one day.
—— The Mariner's Compass said to be discovered at Naples.
1304 Wallace betrayed, delivered up, and put to death by Edward I.
1306 Robert I. (Bruce) King of Scotland.

A. D.
1307 The Establishment of the Swiss Republics.
—— Edward II. King of England.
1208 *HENRY VII.* Emperor of Germany.
—— ¶ Pope Clement V.
—— The seat of the Popes transferred to Avignon for seventy years.
1310 Rhodes taken by the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem.
1311 Pierce Gaveston, favourite of Edward II., put to death.
1312 The Knights Templars suppressed by Philip the Fair.
1314 The Scots under Robert Bruce defeat the English under Edward II. at Bannockburn.
—— *LEWIS V.* (of Bavaria) Emperor of Germany.
—— *Lewis X.* (*Hutin*) *King of France.*
1315 *John King of France.*
1316 ¶ Pope John XXII.
—— *Philip V.* (*the Long*) *King of France.*
1320 Andronicus II. (Palæologus) Emperor of the East.
1321 *Charles IV.* (*the Fair*) *King of France.*
1327 Edward III. King of England.
1328 *Philip VI.* (*of Valois*) *King of France.*
1329 David II. King of Scotland. Randolph Earl of Murray Regent.
1331 The Teutonic Knights settle in Prussia.
1332 Edward Baliol, assisted by Edward III., is crowned at Scone King of Scots, but is soon driven out of the kingdom.
1333 Casimir III. (the Great) King of Poland.
1334 ¶ Pope Benedict XII.
1340 Gunpowder invented by Swartz, a Monk of Cologne.
—— Oil Painting invented by John Van Eyke.
1341 John V. (Palæologus) Emperor of the East.
—— John Cantacuzenos, his governor, usurps the throne.
1342 ¶ Pope Clement VI.
1346 Battle of Cressy won by Edward III. and the Black Prince over the French.
—— Battle of Durham, in which David II. of Scotland is taken prisoner.
1347 *CHARLES IV.* Emperor of Germany.
—— Cola Rienzi assumes the Government of Rome.
1350 The Order of the Garter instituted by Edward III.
—— Peter (the Cruel) King of Castile.
1351 *John II. King of France.*
1352 ¶ Pope Innocent VI.
—— The Turks first enter Europe
1356 The Battle of Poictiers, in which John II. King of France is taken prisoner, and afterwards brought to London.
1362 ¶ Pope Urban V.
—— The Law-pleadings in England changed from French to English.
1346 *Charles V. King of France.*
1370 ¶ Pope Gregory XI.
—— Robert II. King of Scotland.
1377 The Seat of the Popes removed back from Avignon to Rome.
—— Richard II. King of England.
—— Wickliffe's Doctrines propagated in England.
1378 The Schism of the double Popes at Rome and Avignon begins and continues thirty-eight years.
—— ¶ Pope Urban VI. of Rome.
—— ¶ Pope Clement VII. of Avignon.
1378 *WENCESLAUS* Emperor of Germany, deposed in 1400.
1380 *Charles VI. King of France.*
—— Tamerlane invades and subdues Chorassar.
1381 Wat Tyler's and Jack Straw's Insurrection in England.

A. D.
1381 Peace between Venice and Genoa.
—— Bills of Exchange first used in England.
1383 Cannon first used by the English in the defence of Calais.
1384 Philip the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, succeeds to the Earldom of Flanders.
1386 Tamerlane subdues Georgia.
1388 Battle of Otterburn between Percy (Hotspur) and Douglas.
1389 ¶ Pope Boniface IX.
1390 Robert III. king of Scotland
1391 Manuel II. (Palæologus) Emperor of the East.
1392 The Cape of Good Hope discovered by the Portuguese.
1394 The Jews banished from France by Charles VI.
—— ¶ Pope Benedict XIII.
1395 Sigismund King of Hungary defeated by Bajazet I.
1398 Tamerlane subdues part of Hindoostan, and takes Delhi.
1399 Henry IV. King of England.
1400
1402 Bajazet is taken prisoner by Tamerlane in the battle of Angoria.
—— Battle of Halidoun Hill, in which the Scots are defeated.
1403 Battle of Shrewsbury, in which Hotspur is killed.
1404 ¶ Pope Innocent VII.
1405 Death of Tamerlane.
1406 James I. King of Scotland.
—— ¶ Pope Gregory XII.
1409 Council of Pisa, where Pope Gregory is deposed.
—— ¶ Pope Alexander V.
1410 *JOSSE* (Marquis of Brandenburgh) Emperor of Germany.
—— ¶ Pope John XXIII.
1411 *SIGISMUND* Emperor of Germany.
—— The University of St. Andrews in Scotland founded.
1413 Henry V. King of England.
1414 Council of Constance, in which two Popes were deposed, and Popedom remained vacant near three years.
1415 Henry V. defeats the French at Agincourt.
—— John Huss condemned by the Council of Constance for Heresy and burnt.
1416 Jerome of Prague condemned by the same Council, and burnt.
1417 ¶ Pope Martin V.
—— Paper first made from linen rags.
1420 The Island of Madeira discovered by the Portuguese.
1421 John VI. (Palæologus) Emperor of the East.
1422 Amurath besieges Constantinople.
—— Henry VI. King of England.
—— *Charles VII. King of France.*
—— James I. King of Scots liberated from captivity by the English.
1425 The Court of Session in Scotland instituted by James I.
1428 Joan of Arc, the Maid of Orleans, compels the English to raise the siege of that town.
1431 ¶ Pope Eugene IV.
—— Rise of the Medici family at Florence.
1436 Paris recovered by the French from the English.
1437 James II. King of Scotland.
1438 *ALBERT II.* Emperor of Germany.
1439 Reunion of the Greek and Latin Churches.
—— The Pragmatic Sanction established in France.
1440 *FREDERICK III.* Emperor of Germany.
—— Invention of the art of Printing by John Guttenberg at Strasburg.

A. D.

1444 Ladislaus King of Hungary killed in battle with the Turks.
1445 Constantine (Palæologus) Emperor of the East.
1446 Great Inundation of the sea in Holland.
1447 ¶ Pope Nicholas V.
—— Rise of the Sforza Family at Milan.
1453 Constantinople taken by the Turks. EXTINCTION OF THE EASTERN EMPIRE OF THE ROMANS.
—— End of the English government in France.
1455 ¶ Pope Calixtus III.
—— Battle of St. Albans, where Henry VI. is taken prisoner by the Duke of York.
1458 ¶ Pope Pius II. (Æneas Sylvius.)
1459 The art of Engraving on copper invented.

1460 James III. King of Scotland.
—— Battle of Wakefield, in which the Duke of York is killed.
1461 Edward IV. King of England.
—— *Lewis XI. King of France.*
1470 Henry VI. restored to the throne of England.
1471 Battle of Barnet, where Warwick is killed. Battle of Tewksbury, where the Lancastrians are totally defeated.
—— Edward IV. restored. Prince Edward of Lancaster basely murdered by Clarence and Gloucester. Death of Henry VI.
—— ¶ Pope Sixtus IV.
1474 The Cape de Verd Islands discovered by the Portuguese.
1475 Edward IV. invades France. Peace of Pecquigni purchased by the French.
1479 Ferdinand and Isabella unite the kingdoms of Arragon and Castile.
—— Russia freed from subjection to the Tartars by John Basilwitz.
1483 *Charles VIII. King of France.*
—— Edward V. King of England. Duke of Gloucester Protector.
—— Edward V. and his brother murdered.
—— Richard III. King of England.
1484 ¶ Pope Innocent VIII.
1485 Battle of Bosworth, in which Richard III. is killed.
—— Henry VII. King of England, first of the house of Tudor. Union of the houses of York and Lancaster.

1488 James IV. King of Scotland.
1491 Granada taken by Ferdinand and Isabella. End of the kingdom of the Moors in Spain.
1492 ¶ Pope Alexander VI. (Borgia.)
—— Hispaniola and Cuba discovered by Christopher Columbus.
1493 *MAXIMILIAN I.* Emperor of Germany.
1494 Expedition of Charles VIII. into Naples.
—— Algebra first known in Europe.
—— America discovered by Columbus.
1497 The Portuguese, under Vasco de Gama, double the Cape of Good Hope and sail to the East Indies.
1498 *Lewis XII. king of France.*
—— Savanorala burnt by Pope Alexander VI. for preaching against the vices of the clergy.
1499 Lewis XII. takes possession of the Milanese.
—— Sebastian Cabot lands in North America.

1500

—— Brazil discovered by the Portuguese.
—— Maximilian divides Germany into six Circles, and adds four more in 1512.
1503 ¶ Pope Pius III.

A. D.
1503 ¶ Pope Julius II.
—— Battle of Cerizoles, in which the French lose Naples.
1504 Philip I. King of Spain.—1506 Jane his Queen.
1507 Madagascar discovered by the Portuguese.
1508 League of Cambray against the Venetians.
1509 **Henry VIII.** King of England.
—— Battle of Agnadello, May 14.
1511 Cuba conquered by the Spaniards.
1513 Battle of Flodden, fatal to the Scots.
—— **J**ames V. King of Scotland.
—— ¶ Pope Leo X.
1515 *Francis I. King of France.*
1516 Charles I. (Emperor Charles V.) King of Spain.
—— Barbarossa seizes the Kingdom of Algiers.
1517 The Reformation in Germany begun by Luther.
—— The Turks put an end to the reign of the Mamelukes in Egypt.
1518 Leo X. condemns Luther's Doctrines.
1519 *CHARLES V.* Emperor of Germany.
—— Fernando Cortez engages in the conquest of Mexico.
1520 Sweden and Denmark united.
—— Massacre at Stockholm by Christiern II. and Archbishop Trollo.
1521 ¶ Pope Adrian VI.
—— Gustavus Vasa King of Sweden.
—— Cortez completes the conquest of Mexico.
1522 The first Voyage round the World performed by a ship of Magellan's squadron.
1523 Solyman the Magnificent takes Belgrade.
—— ¶ Pope Clement VII.
1524 Sweden and Denmark embrace the Protestant faith.
1525 Battle of Pavia, in which Francis I. is taken prisoner by Charles V.
1526 Treaty of Madrid between Charles V. and Francis I., when the latter is set at liberty.
1527 Rome taken and plundered by Charles V.
—— Pizarro and Dalmagro invade the Empire of Peru.
1528 Revolution of Genoa by Andrea Doria.
—— Gustavus Ericson crowned King of Sweden.
1529 Diet of Spires against the Huguenots, then first termed Protestants.
—— Peace of Cambray, August 5.
1530 The League of Smalcald between the Protestants.
1531 Michael Servetus burnt for heresy at Geneva.
1532 The Treaty of Nuremberg, August 2.
—— The Court of Session in Scotland new-modeled by James V.
1534 The Reformation in England.
—— ¶ Pope Paul III.
—— Barbarossa seizes the Kingdom of Tunis.
—— Jack of Leyden heads the Anabaptists at Munster.
1535 The Society of the Jesuits instituted by Ignatius Loyola.
—— Expedition of Charles V. against Tunis.
1538 Treaty of Nice between Charles V. and Francis I.
1540 Dissolution of the Monasteries in England by Henry VIII.
1542 **M**ary Queen of Scotland.
1544 The French defeat the troops of Charles V. in the battle of Cerizoles. The treaty of Crepi.
1545 The Council of Trent begins, which continued eighteen years.
1546 Cardinal Beaton, of St. Andrew's, assassinated.
1547 Fiesco's Conspiracy at Genoa.
—— The Battle of Mulberg, in which the Protestants are defeated, and the Elector of Saxony taken prisoner.
—— **Edward VI.** King of England.

A. D.
1547 *Henry II. King of France.*
1548 The Interim granted by Charles V. to the Protestants.
1550 ¶ Pope Julius III.
1552 The Treaty of Passau between Charles V. and the Elector of Saxony, for the Establishment of Lutheranism.
1553 **Mary** Queen of England.
—— Lady Jane Grey beheaded.
1555 ¶ Pope Marcellus II.
—— ¶ Pope Paul IV.
—— Many Bishops burnt in England by Mary.
1556 *FERDINAND I.* Emperor of Germany.
—— Philip II. King of Spain.
1557 Philip II. defeats the French at St. Quintin.
1558 **Elizabeth** Queen of England.
1559 ¶ Pope Pius IV.
—— *Francis II. King of France.*
—— Treaty of Catteau-Cambresis.
1560 *Charles IX. King of France.*
—— Conspiracy of Amboise formed by the party of Conde against that of Guise. Beginning of the Civil Wars in France.
—— The Reformation completed in Scotland by John Knox.
1561 Mary Queen of Scots arrives in Scotland from France.
1562 Battle of Dreux. Victory of the Guises over Conde.
1564 *MAXIMILIAN II.* Emperor of Germany.
1566 ¶ Pope Pius VI.
—— Revolt of the Netherlands from Philip II.
1567 The Duke of Alva sent by Philip to the Netherlands.
—— James VI. King of Scotland.
1568 Mary Queen of Scots flees to England for protection.
—— Philip II. puts to death his son Don Carlos.
1569 The Earl of Murray, Regent of Scotland, assassinated by Hamilton.
—— The battles of Jarnac and Moncontour in France, in which the Protestants are defeated.
1571 Naval Victory at Lepanto, where the Turks are defeated by Don John of Austria.
1572 ¶ Pope Gregory XIII.
—— The Massacre of St. Bartholomew, August 24.
1574 *Henry III. King of France.*
—— Socinus propagates his opinions.
—— Don Sebastian King of Portugal invades Africa.
1576 *RODOLPHUS II.* Emperor of Germany.
—— The League in France formed against the Protestants.
1579 Commencement of the Republic of Holland, by the union of Utrecht.
1580 Philip II. takes possession of Portugal.
—— The World circumnavigated by Sir Francis Drake.
1582 The New Style introduced into Italy by Pope Gregory XIII., the 5th of October being counted the 15th.
1584 William I. Prince of Orange murdered at Delft.
—— Virginia discovered by Sir Walter Raleigh.
1585 ¶ Pope Sixtus V.
1587 Mary Queen of Scots beheaded at Fotheringay.
1588 Destruction of the Spanish Armada by the English.
1589 Henry III. of France murdered by Jaquez Clement.
—— *Henry IV. (the Great) King of France.*
1590 The battle of Ivry, which ruins the league in France.
—— ¶ Pope Urban VII.
—— ¶ Pope Gregory XIV.
1591 The University of Dublin erected.
—— ¶ Pope Innocent IX.

A. D.
1592 Presbyterian Church Government established in Scotland.
—— ¶ Pope Clement VIII.
1594 The Bank of England incorporated.
1598 Edict of Nantes, tolerating the Protestants in France.
—— Peace of Verins concluded between France and Spain.
—— Philip III. King of Spain.
—— Tyrone's rebellion in Ireland.
1600
—— Gowrie's Conspiracy in Scotland.
—— The Earl of Essex beheaded.
—— The English East India Company established.
1602 Decimal Arithmetic invented at Bruges.
1603 **James I.** King of Great Britain. Union of the crowns of England and Scotland.
1605 The Gunpowder Plot discovered.
—— ¶ Pope Paul V.
1608 Galileo discovers the Satellites of Jupiter.
—— Arminius propagates his opinions.
1610 Henry IV. of France murdered by Ravaillac.
—— *Lewis III. King of France.*
—— The Moors expelled from Spain by Philip III.
—— Hudson's Bay discovered.
1611 Baronets first created in England by James I.
1612 *MATTHIAS* Emperor of Germany.
1614 Logarithms invented by Napier.
1616 Settlement of Virginia by Sir Walter Raleigh.
1618 The Synod of Dort in Holland.
1619 Discovery of the Circulation of the Blood by Dr. Harvey.
—— *FERDINAND II.* Emperor of Germany.
—— Vanini burnt at Thoulouse for Atheism.
1620 The Battle of Prague, by which the Elector Palatine loses his Electorate.
—— The English make a settlement at Madras.
—— Navarre united to France.
1621 Philip IV. King of Spain.
—— Batavia, in the Island of Java, built and settled by the Dutch.
—— ¶ Pope Gregory XV.
1623 ¶ Pope Urban VIII.
1625 **Charles I.** King of Great Britain.
—— The Island of Barbadoes the first English settlement in the West Indies.
1626 League of the Protestant Princes against the Emperor.
1632 Gustavus Adolphus killed in the battle of Lutzen.
—— Christina Queen of Sweden.
1635 The French Academy instituted.
1637 *FERDINAND III.* Emperor of Germany.
1638 Bagdat taken by the Turks.
—— The Solemn League and Covenant established in Scotland.
1640 John Duke of Braganza recovers the kingdom of Portugal.
1641 The Irish Rebellion, and Massacre of the Protestants, October 23.
—— The Earl of Strafford beheaded.
1642 Beginning of the Civil War in England. The battle of Edgehill, October 23.
1643 *Lewis XIV. King of France.*
—— Ann of Austria Regent of France.
—— Archbishop Laud condemned by the Commons, and beheaded.
1644 ¶ Pope Innocent X.
—— Revolution in China by the Tartars.
1645 Charles I. defeated in the battle of Naseby.

A. D.
1648 The Peace of Westphalia. The Civil War of the Fronde at Paris.
1649 Charles I. of England beheaded.
—— Commonwealth of England begins.
1650 The Marquis of Montrose put to death.
—— Battle of Dunbar. Covenanters defeated by Cromwell.
1651 The battle of Worcester won by Cromwell.
1652 The first War between the English and Dutch.
1654 End of the Commonwealth of England. Oliver Cromwell Lord Protector.
—— The English, under Admiral Penn, take possession of Jamaica.
—— Christina Queen of Sweden resigns the Crown to Charles X.
1655 ¶ Pope Alexander VII.
1658 *LEOPOLD I.* Emperor of Germany.
—— Richard Cromwell Lord Protector of England.
1659 The Peace of the Pyrenees between France and Spain.
1660 **Charles II.** King of Great Britain. Restoration of Monarchy.
—— The Peace of Oliva between Sweden, Denmark, and Poland.
1662 The Royal Society instituted in England.
1663 Charter of Carolina, and a colony settled soon after.
—— The French Academy of Inscriptions instituted.
1664 The second Dutch War begins.
1665 Charles II. King of Spain.
—— Great Plague in London.
1666 Great Fire in London.
—— The Academy of Science instituted in France.
—— Sabatei Levi, in Turkey, pretends to be the Messiah.
1667 The Peace of Breda, which confirms to the English Pennsylvania, New-York, and New-Jersey.
—— ¶ Pope Clement IX.
1668 The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.
1669 The Island of Candia taken by the Turks.
1670 ¶ Pope Clement X.
1672 Lewis XIV. conquers great part of Holland.
—— The De Witts put to death in Holland.
1674 John Sobieski King of Poland.
1676 ¶ Pope Innocent XI.
1678 The Peace of Nimeguen, July 31.
—— The Habeas Corpus act passed in England.
1679 The Long Parliament of Charles II. dissolved.
1681 Peter the Great Czar of Muscovy.
1683 Execution of Lord Russel, July 21.
—— Execution of Algernon Sydney, December 7.
—— The Siege of Vienna by the Turks raised by John Sobieski.
1685 **James II.** King of Great Britain.
—— Revocation of the Edict of Nantes by Lewis XIV.
—— Duke of Monmouth beheaded.
1686 The Newtonian Philosophy first published in England.
—— The League of Augsburg against France.
1688 Revolution in Britain. King James abdicates the throne, December 23.
1689 **William** and **Mary** King and Queen of Great Britain.
—— Episcopacy abolished in Scotland by King William.
—— ¶ Pope Alexander VIII.
1690 Battle of the Boyne, July 1.
1691 ¶ Pope Innocent XII.
1692 Battle of La Hogue, May 19.
—— The Massacre of Glencoe in Scotland, January 31. O. S.
—— Battle of Steedkirk. King William defeated by Luxemburg, July 24.
—— Hanover made the ninth Electorate of the Empire.

A. D.
1695 Namur taken by King William, June 25.
1697 Peace of Riswick concluded, September 11.
—— Charles XII. King of Sweden.
1699 Peace of Carlovitz concluded, January 26.
1700
—— Philip V. King of Spain.
—— ¶ Pope Clement XI.
1701 Death of James II. at St. Germain's.
1702 **Anne** Queen of Great Britain. War against France and Spain.
—— The English and Dutch destroy the French Fleet at Vigo.
—— The French send colonies to the Mississippi.
1703 Gibraltar taken by Admiral Rooke, July 24.
1704 Battle of Blenheim. The French defeated by Marlborough and Prince Eugene, August 2.
—— Peter the Great founds St. Petersburgh.
1705 The English take Barcelona.
—— *JOSEPH I.* Emperor of Germany.
1706 Battle of Ramilies. The French defeated by the Duke of Marlborough, May 12.
—— The Treaty of Union between England and Scotland, signed July 22.
1707 The battle of Almanza. The French and Spaniards, under the Duke of Berwick, defeat the allies, April 14.
1708 Battle of Oudenarde. The French defeated by Marlborough and Eugene, June 30.
—— Minorca taken by General Stanhope, September 18.
1709 Battle of Pultowa. Charles XII. defeated by Czar Peter, June 30.
—— Battle of Malplaquet. The French defeated by Marlborough and Eugene, September 11.
1711 *CHARLES VI.* Emperor of Germany.
1713 The Peace of Utrecht signed March 30.
1714 **George I.** Elector of Hanover, King of Great Britain.
1715 *Lewis XV. King of France.*
—— The Rebellion of Scotland. Battle of Sheriff-muir, November 13.
1716 Prince Eugene defeats the Turks at Peterwaradin.
1718 Charles XII. of Sweden killed at the siege of Frederickshall.
1721 ¶ Pope Innocent XIII.
1724 ¶ Pope Benedict XIII.
1725 Death of Peter the Great, Czar of Muscovy. Catharine Empress.
1726 Great Earthquake at Palermo, August 21.
1727 **George II.** King of Great Britain.
1727 Treaty of Copenhagen between Great Britain and Denmark.
—— The Spaniards besiege Gibraltar, May 20.
1728 Treaty between Great Britain and Holland, May 27.
—— The Congress of Soissons, June 14.
1729 Treaty of Seville between Great Britain, France, and Spain, November 9.
1730 ¶ Pope Clement XII.
—— Christian VI. King of Denmark.
—— The Persians under Kouli-Khan defeat the Turks.
1731 Treaty between Great Britain, the Emperor, and King of Spain, July 22.
1733 The Jesuits expelled from Paraguay, January.
—— Frederick III. King of Poland.
1734 Commercial Treaty between Great Britain and Russia, December 2.
1735 The French defeat the Imperialists in Italy.
1736 Peace between Spain and Austria.
—— Kouli-Khan (Nadir-Schah) proclaimed King of Persia, September 29
1737 War declared between the Emperor and the Turks, July 2.
1738 The Russians invade the Crimea.

A. D.
1739 Nadir-Schah conquers the greater part of the Mogul Empire.
—— Treaty between Great Britain and Denmark.
—— Peace between the Emperor and the Turks, August 21.
—— Peace between Russia and the Turks, November.
1740 Frederick III. (the Great) King of Prussia.
—— ¶ Pope Benedict XIV.
—— War between Poland and Hungary.
1741 War declared between Russia and Sweden.
—— The Prussians masters of Silesia, October 20.
1742 Peace between Austria and Prussia, June 11.
—— Defensive Alliance between Great Britain and Prussia, November 18.
—— *CHARLES VII.* (of Bavaria) Emperor of Germany.
1743 Defensive Alliance between Great Britain and Russia, February.
—— War in Germany between the British, Hungarians, French, and Austrians.
—— The French defeated by the allies at Dettingen, June 6.
1744 War declared in Great Britain against France, March 31.
—— The King of Prussia takes Prague.
—— Commodore Anson completes his Voyage round the World.
1745 *FRANCIS I.* (of Lorraine) Emperor of Germany.
—— Quadruple Alliance between Britain, Austria, Holland, and Poland, January 3.
—— The allied army defeated by the French at Fontenoy, April 30.
—— Louisburg and Cape Breton taken by the British troops, June 6.
—— The Rebellion breaks out in Scotland, July.
—— Treaty of Dresden between Prussia, Poland, Austria, and Saxony, December 25.
1746 Ferdinand VI. King of Spain.
—— Frederick V. King of Denmark.
—— Count Saxe takes Brussels and Antwerp.
—— Victory of Culloden, which puts an end to the Rebellion in Scotland, April 16.
—— Lords Balmerino and Kilmarnock beheaded, August 18.
—— Count Saxe defeats the allies at Raucoux, October 11.
—— Dreadful Earthquake at Lima in Peru, October 17.
1747 Kouli-Khan murdered. Revolution in Persia.
1748 Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle between Great Britain, France, Spain, Austria, Sardinia, and Holland, October 7.
1750 Joseph King of Portugal.
—— Academy of Sciences founded at Stockholm.
1751 Adolphus of Holstein King of Sweden.
—— Peace between Spain and Portugal.
1752 New Style introduced in Britain. September, 3 reckoned 14.
1753 The British Museum established in Montague house.
1754 Great Eruption of Ætna.
—— Great Earthquake at Constantinople and Cairo, September 2.
1755 Lisbon destroyed by an Earthquake, November 1.
1756 War declared between Great Britain and France, May 18.
1757 The King of Prussia conquers Silesia.
1758 ¶ Pope Clement XIII.
1759 The French defeated by the allied army at Minden, August 1.
—— Charles III. King of Spain.
—— The Jesuits expelled from Portugal, September 3.
—— General Wolfe takes Quebec in Canada, September 17.
1760 Montreal and Canada taken by the British, September 8.
—— **George III.** King of Great Britain, October 25.
1762 Peter III. Emperor of Russia.
—— The Jesuits banished from France, August.
—— Peace between Great Britain and France at Fontainebleau, November 3.

A. D.
1763 Peace between Great Britain, France, and Spain, at Paris, February 10.
—— Catharine II. Empress of Russia.
1764 Stanislaus II. King of Poland.
—— Byron's Discoveries in the South Seas.
1765 *JOSEPH II.* Emperor of Germany.
1766 The Jesuits expelled from Bohemia and Denmark.
—— Christian VII. King of Denmark.
1767 The Jesuits expelled from Spain, Genoa, and Venice.
—— Discoveries of Wallis and Carteret in the South Seas.
1768 Royal Academy of Arts established at London.
—— The Jesuits expelled from Naples, Malta, and Parma.
—— Bougainville's Discoveries in the South Seas.
1769 ¶ Pope Clement XIV.
—— Cook's first Discoveries in the South Seas.
—— Corsica taken by the French, June 13.
1770 Earthquake at St. Domingo.
1771 Gustavus III. King of Sweden.
1772 Revolution in Sweden, August 19.
—— Poland dismembered by Russia, Prussia, and Austria.
1773 Cook's second Voyage and Discoveries.
—— The Society of Jesuits suppressed by the Pope's bull, August 25.
1774 *Lewis XVI. King of France.*
1775 Battle of Bunker's Hill in North America, June 17.
1776 ¶ Pope Pius VI.
—— The Americans declare their Independence, July 4.
1777 Mary Queen of Portugal.
—— Surrender of the British Army under Burgoyne at Saratoga, in the state of New-York, October 17.
1778 League between the French and Americans, October 30.
1779 Peace between the Imperialists and Prussians, May 13.
—— Great Eruption of Vesuvius, August 8.
—— Siege of Gibraltar by the Spaniards, July.
—— Captain Cook killed in the Island of Owyhee.
1780 Great Riots in London on account of the Popish Bill, June 2.
—— War declared between Great Britain and Holland, December 20.
1781 Surrender of the British Army under Cornwallis to the Americans and French at Yorktown in Virginia, October 18.
1782 Sir G. Rodney defeats the French fleet off Dominica, April 12.
1783 Peace between Great Britain, France, and Spain, and the Independence of America declared, January 20.
1784 Peace between Great Britain and Holland, May 24.
1785 Treaty of Alliance between Austria, France, and Holland, November 9.
1786 Frederick IV. King of Prussia.
1788 Defensive Alliance between England and Holland, April 25.
1789 Selim III. Grand Seignior, April.
—— George Washington first President of the United States, April.
—— The Bastille at Paris taken and destroyed, and the Governor massacred, July 14.
1790 Monastic Establishments suppressed in France, February 13.
—— War commenced in India with Tippoo Sultan, May 1.
—— *LEOPOLD II.* Emperor of Germany.
1792 *FRANCIS II.* Emperor of Germany.
—— Gustavus III. King of Sweden assassinated by Ankerstrom, March 29.
—— Gustavus IV. King of Sweden. Duke of Sudermania Regent in his minority.
—— The Thuilleries attacked. The King and Queen of France take refuge in the National Assembly. The Swiss guards massacred by the populace, August 10.
—— The Royal Family of France imprisoned in the Temple, August 14

A. D.

1792 A dreadful massacre of the state-prisoners at Paris, September 2, 3.
—— The National Convention is constituted, the King deposed, and France declared a Republic, September 21.
—— Savoy incorporated with the French Republic, November 27.
—— Lewis XVI. is brought to trial, and answers each article of accusation, December 14.
1793 Lewis XVI. condemned to death by a majority of five voices, January 17, and beheaded, January 21.
—— Russia declares war against France, January 31.
—— The French Convention declares war against England and Holland, February 1.
—— Queen of France condemned to death and beheaded, October 15.
1794 Robespierre, with his chief partisans, guillotined, July 28.
1795 The Stadtholder takes refuge in England. Holland overrun by the French, January.
—— Lyons bombarded, laid in ruins, and all its loyal inhabitants massacred, May.
—— Lewis XVII. died in prison at Paris, June 8.
—— The Cape of Good Hope taken by the British, September 16.
—— Belgium incorporated with the French Republic, September 30.
—— Stanislaus II. resigns the Crown of Poland. The kingdom divided between Russia, Austria, and Prussia, November 25.
1796 The French overrun and plunder Italy.
—— Death of Catharine II. Paul Emperor of Russia, November 17.
1797 John Adams President of the United States, March 4.
—— The Dutch Fleet beaten and captured by Admiral Duncan, October 11.
1798 The Papal Government suppressed by the French. The Pope quits Rome, February 26.
—— Ireland in open rebellion, May, June, &c.
—— Admiral Nelson destroys the French Fleet in the battle of the Nile, August 1.
—— The Swiss finally defeated, and their Independence abolished, September 19.
1799 Seringapatam taken by General Harris, and Tippoo Sultan killed, May 4.
—— Death of Pope Pius VI., September.
—— A Revolution at Paris. Bonaparte declared First Consul, December 25.

1800

—— Union of Britain and Ireland.
—— Bonaparte defeats the Austrians in the battle of Marengo in Italy, June 14.
—— Armistice between the French and Austrians in Germany, July 15.
—— The new Pope, Pius VII., restored to his government by the Emperor, July 25.
—— Malta taken by the British, September 5.
1801 First meeting of the Imperial Parliament of Britain and Ireland, January.
—— Thomas Jefferson President of the United States, March 4.
—— Death of Paul. Alexander I. Emperor of Russia, March 23.
—— Battle of Copenhagen, in which the Danes are defeated by Lord Nelson, April 3.
1802 The Catholic Religion re-established in France, March.
—— Treaty of peace between Britain and France.
—— The King of Sardinia resigns his crown to his brother, July.
—— Bonaparte declared Chief Consul for life, July.
—— War between France and Germany, and Russia, in which the French are successful.
1803 War between Britain and France.

A. D.
1804 Emperor of Germany assumes the title of Emperor of Austria August 11.
—— *Bonaparte crowned Emperor of France, December 2.*
1805 Bonaparte King of Italy, March.
—— Lord Nelson defeats the combined fleets of France and Spain off Cape Trafalgar, takes or destroys 19 ships of the line, and is killed in the battle, October 21.
—— War between England and Spain.
1806 Louis Bonaparte crowned King of Holland, June.
—— The British Parliament vote the Abolition of the Slave Trade, June 10.
—— Francis II. resigns the office of Emperor of Germany, August 2.
—— War between France and Prussia.
—— Battle of Jena and total defeat of the Prussians, October 14.
1807 War between France and Russia, in which the French are successful.
—— Copenhagen taken by the British, and the Danish fleet carried to England.
—— Treaty of Peace between France, and Russia, and Prussia.
1808 Abolition of the Slave Trade in the United States of America, January 1.
—— War between Russia and Sweden.
—— Bonaparte seizes Portugal, and the Royal Family flee to Brazil.
—— Bonaparte seizes the Royal Family of Spain. War between France and Spain.
1809 Battle of Corunna, January 16.
—— Fall of Saragossa, February 21.
—— James Madison President of the United States, March 4.
—— Gustavus IV. King of Sweden deposed, and Charles XIII. proclaimed, March 13.
—— War between France and Austria, April 6.
—— French enter Vienna, May 12.
—— War between Russia and Austria, May 22.
—— The Papal States united to France, June 1.
—— Battle of Talavera, July 24.
—— Peace of Vienna between Austria and France, October 14.
1810 Bonaparte divorces the Empress Josephine, January 16.
—— He marries the Arch-Duchess Maria Louisa of Austria, April 1.
—— Louis Bonaparte abdicates the throne of Holland, July 1.
—— Holland annexed to the French.
—— Population of the United States, 7,223,903.
1811 Prince of Wales appointed Regent, February 8.
—— Two hundred buildings and large quantities of goods burnt in Newburyport, Mass.
—— Massacre in Cairo, when about 1,000 Mamelukes lost their lives, March 1.
—— A Son born to Napoleon Bonaparte, styled King of Rome, March 20.
—— Batavia captured by the English, August 8.
—— An unusually large comet appeared, September 1.
—— Richmond Theatre burnt, December 26.
1812 Great Earthquake at Carraccas, March 26.
—— Perceval, Prime Minister of England, assassinated, May 11.
—— War against Great Britain declared by the United States, June 18.
—— General Hull and his army taken prisoners in Canada, August 16.
—— Battle of Smolensko, August 17.
—— Battle of Moskwa, September 7.
—— The French army enter Moscow, 14th September.
—— British Frigate Guerriere captured, August 29.
do. do. Macedonia captured, October 25.
do. do. Java captured, December 29.
1813 Lewis XVIII. publishes an Address to the people of France, February 1.

A. D.
1813 Treaty between Great Britain and Sweden, March 3.
—— Sweden declares War against France, March 3.
—— The Russian troops enter Hamburgh, March 18.
—— Prussia joins Russia against France, March.
—— Spanish Inquisition abolished by the Cortes, April.
—— Battle of Vittoria, in Spain, June 2.
—— Austria declares War against France, August 11.
—— General Moreau killed, August 28.
—— Commodore Perry captures the British squadron, on lake Erie, September 10.
—— Battle of Leipsic, October 19.
—— The Prince of Orange assumes the title of Sovereign Prince of the Netherlands, December 2.
—— The Russians and their Allies enter France, December 23.
1814 The Pope released by Bonaparte, January 23.
—— Lord Wellington took possession of Bordeaux, February 13.
—— Paris capitulates to the Allies, March 30.
—— The Allies enter Paris, April 1.
—— Napoleon Bonaparte dethroned, April 4, and banished to the Island of Elba, for which he sails, April 28.
—— *Louis XVIII., being called to the throne of France*, made his entry into Paris, May 3.
—— General Peace in Europe, May 30.
—— The Allied Sovereigns visit London, June 8.
—— Inquisition restored in Spain, July 18.
—— Norway annexed to Sweden, August 14.
—— City of Washington taken by the British, August 24.
—— British Squadron on Lake Champlain captured by Commodore M'Donough, September 11.
—— General Congress of Vienna, November 7.
—— Pensacola taken by General Jackson, November 7.
—— Treaty of Peace between the United States and Great Britain signed at Ghent, December 24.
—— The British repulsed at New-Orleans, December 28.
1815 The British completely defeated and General Packenham slain at New-Orleans, January 8.
—— United States Frigate President taken by a British squadron, January 15.
—— Peace between Great Britain and the United States ratified February 24.
—— Bonaparte sailed from Elba, February 26—lands in France, March 1—enters Paris, March 26.
—— Bonaparte left Paris to meet the Allies, May 2.
—— Battle of Waterloo, June 17 and 18.
—— Bonaparte surrenders himself to the British, July 15.
—— Joachim Murat, King of Naples, shot for High Treason, October 13.
—— Bonaparte landed at St. Helena, October 13.
—— Marshal Ney shot for High Treason, December 7.
1816 Jesuits expelled from Petersburgh and Moscow, January 2.
—— St. Johns, Newfoundland, destroyed by fire, February 18.
—— Princess Charlotte of Wales married to Prince Leopold, May 2.
—— Lord Cochrane tried for breaking out of Prison, August 17.
—— He is released by a penny subscription, December 7.
—— Indiana admitted into the Union as a State, December.
1817 United States Bank opened for business at Philadelphia, January 1.
—— American Colonization Society for free Blacks organized, January 1
—— James Monroe President of the United States, March 4.
—— Pernambuco declared itself Independent, April 5.
—— Portuguese authority established at Pernambuco, May 18.
—— Dey of Algiers assassinated, September.

A. D.
1817 Death of Princess Caroline, November 6.
—— Mississippi admitted into the Union as a State, December 11.
1818 Queen of England dies.
—— Charles XIII. of Sweden dies, and is succeeded by Prince Bernadotte.
—— France evacuated by the Allies, October.
—— Illinois admitted into the Union as a State, December 4.
—— Commercial Treaties concluded between the United States on one part and Great Britain and Sweden on the other.
—— Alleghany College established.
1819 A Treaty for the cession of Florida to the United States signed at Washington, February 23.
—— First Steam Ship sails for Europe, May.
—— Commodore Perry dies in the West Indies, August 23.
—— Alabama admitted into the Union as a State, December.
1820 George III., King of England, dies January 29.
—— **George IV.** succeeds to the throne of Great Britain and Ireland.
—— The Duke of Berry assassinated, February 14.
—— Maine admitted into the Union as a State.
—— Queen Caroline of England prosecuted for Adultery.
—— Another Revolution, which gives a Free Constitution to the Spanish nation.
—— Population of the United States, 9,625,734.
1821 Missouri admitted into the Union as a State.
—— An attempt to destroy the Royal Family of France, January 27.
—— British Government issue a Manifesto respecting the Holy Alliance, February.
—— Napoleon Bonaparte dies at St. Helena, May 5, 1821, aged 52.
—— Queen Caroline of England dies, August 7, 1821.
—— Elias Boudinot, President of the American Bible Society, dies.
1822 William Pinckney dies, February 26.
—— Iturbide declared himself Emperor of Mexico.
—— Columbian College established.
—— Massacre of Greeks at Scio.
—— Revolution in Portugal with a Cortes and Free Constitution.
—— Don Pedro, son of the King of Portugal, declared Emperor of Brazils.
1823 Iturbide dethroned and banished to Italy.
—— France declares War against Spain, and invades it with a large army.
—— Counter Revolution in Portugal.
—— Treaty of Peace between Spain and Buenos Ayres, July 4.

COMPARATIVE VIEW

OF

ANCIENT

AND OF

MODERN GEOGRAPHY.

In the following Tables the Countries unknown to Ancients, or of which the Names are uncertain, are left blank.

The same numbers in the two adjacent columns on each page indicate the ancient and modern names of the same countries or places.

MODERN EUROPE.	ANCIENT EUROPE.
GREENLAND, or the Arctic Continent.	
SPITSBERGEN (Island.)	
ICELAND, (Island,) belonging to Norway.	
NORWAY.	SCANDINAVIA, SCANDIA, vel BALTIA.
1. Wardhuis, or Norwegian Lapland.	
2. Drontheim.	2. Nerigon.
3. Bergen.	3. Sitones.
4. Aggerhuis, or Christiana.	
SWEDEN.	
1. Lapland and West Bothnia.	1. Scritofinni.
2. Sweden Proper.	2. Suiones.
3. Gothland.	3. Gutæ et Hillevionès.
4. Finland.	4. Finningia.
5. Islands of Gothland—Oeland, Aland, Rugen.	5. Insulæ Sinus Cedani.
DENMARK.	
Jutland.	*Chersonesus Cimbrica.*
1. Alburg.	1. Cimbri.
2. Wyburg.	

MODERN EUROPE.	ANCIENT EUROPE.
3. Aarhusen.	3. Harudes.
4. Rypen.	4. Phundusii, Sigulones.
5. Sleswick.	5. Sabalingii.
Islands in the Baltic.	*Insulæ Sinus Codani.*
1. Zealand.	1, 2. Teutones.
2. Funen.	
3. Falster.	
4. Longeland.	
5. Laland.	
6. Feneren.	
7. Alsen.	
8. Moen.	
9. Bornholm.	
RUSSIA IN EUROPE.	SARMATIA EUROPÆA.
1. Livonia and Estonia.	1. Hirri et Æstii vel Ostiones.
2. Ingria, or the Government of Petersburg.	
3. Carelia, or the Government of Wiburg.	
4. Novogrod.	4. Budini.
5. Archangel, Samoiedia.	
6. Moscow.	6. Basilici.
7. Nishnei Novogrod.	
8. Smolenski.	8. Cariones.
9. Kiew.	
10. Bielgorod.	10 & 4. Budini.
11. Woronesk.	11. Roxolani.
12. Azoff.	12. Iazyges.
FRANCE.	GALLIA.
1. Picardy.	1. Ambiani.
2. Isle of France.	2. Bellovaci, Parisii, Suessones.
3. Champagne.	3. Remi, Catalauni, Tricasses, 13 Lingones.
4. Normandy.	4. Unelli vel Veneti, Saii, Lexovii, Veliocasses.
5. Bretany.	5. Osismii, Veneti, Namnetes, Andes, Redones.
6. Orleannois.	6. Aureliani, Carnutes, Senones, Turones, Pictones, Bituriges.
7. Lionnois.	7. Ædui, Segusiani.
8. Provence.	8. Salyes, Cavares.
9. Languedoc.	9. Volcæ, Arecomici, Helvii, Tolosates.
10. Guienne.	10. Petrocorii, Bituriges, Cadurci, Ruteni.
11. Gascoigne.	11. Aquitani.
12. Dauphine.	12. Allobroges, Centrones.
13. Burgundy and Franche-comte.	13. Lingones, Ædui, Sequani.
14. Lorraine and Alsace.	14. Leuci, Mediomatrici, Triboci, Nemetes.
UNITED PROVINCES, OR KINGDOM OF HOLLAND.	SAXONES.
1. Holland.	1, 2. Frisii.
2. Friesland.	
3. Zealand.	
4. Groningen.	4. Cauci vel Chauci.
5. Overyssel.	5. Franci.

Celtæ.

MODERN EUROPE.	ANCIENT EUROPE.
6. Guelderland and Zutphen.	6. Bructeri, Catti, Sicambri.
7. Utrecht.	7. Batavi.
NETHERLANDS,	
BELONGING TO FRANCE AND HOLLAND.	**BELGÆ, &c.**
1. Brabant.	1. Menapii, Tungrii.
2. Antwerp.	2. Toxandri.
3. Mechlen or Malines.	
4. Limburgh.	4, 5. Alemanni.
5. Luxemburgh.	
6. Namur.	6. Treveri.
7. Hainault.	7. Remi.
8. Cambresis.	
9. Artois.	9. Atrebates, Veromandui.
10. Flanders.	10. Belgæ, Morini.
GERMANY.	**NATIONES GERMANICÆ.**
1. Upper Saxony.	1. Semvi, Lingæ, &c.
2. Lower Saxony.	2. Saxones, Longobardi, Gambrivii.
3. Westphalia.	3. Cherusci, Chamavi, Gauchi, Germania Inferior.
4. Upper Rhine.	4. Germania Superior.
5. Lower Rhine.	5. Marci, Tincteri.
6. Franconia.	6. Marcomanni, Hermonduri.
7. Austria.	7. Noricum.
8. Bavaria.	8. Rhætia.
9. Suabia.	9. Vindelicia.
BOHEMIA.	
1. Bohemia Proper.	1. Boiohœmum.
2. Silesia.	2. Corconti.
3. Moravia.	3. Quadi.
POLAND.	**GERMANO-SARMATÆ.**
1. Greater Poland.	1. Peucini.
2. Less Poland.	2. Lugii.
3. Prussia Royal.	3, 4. Burgundiones, Rugii, Guthones.
4. Prussia Ducal.	
5. Samogitia.	5. Ombroges.
6. Courland.	6. Scyri.
7. Lithuania.	7, 8. Germano-Sarmatia.
8. Warsovia.	
9. Polachia.	
10. Polesia.	
11. Red Russia.	11, 12, 13. Bastarnæ.
12. Podolia.	
13. Volhinia.	
SPAIN.	**HISPANIA, vel IBERIA.**
1. Gallicia.	1, 2, 3. Gallæcia—Cantabri, Astures, Varduli.
2. Asturia.	
3. Biscay.	
4. Navarre.	4, 5, 6. Tarraconensis—Vascones, Valetani.
5. Arragon.	
6. Catalonia.	
7. Valentia.	7, 8. Carthaginensis——Æditani, Contestani.
8. Murcia.	
9. Granada.	9, 10. Bætica—Bastiani, Bastuli, Turdetani, &c.
10. Andalusia.	

MODERN EUROPE.	ANCIENT EUROPE.
11. Old Castile.	11. Gallæciæ pars—Accæi, Arevaci.
12. New Castile.	12. Tarraconensis pars—Carpetani, Oretani.
13. Leon.	13. Gallæciæ pars—Vettones.
14. Estremadura.	14. Lusitaniæ pars—Bæturia.
SPANISH ISLANDS.	INSULÆ HISPANICÆ.
Ivica.	Baleares.
Majorca.	
Minorca.	
PORTUGAL.	LUSITANIA.
Entre Minho e Douro.	Calliaci, Lusitani, Celtici.
Tralos Montes.	
Beira.	
Estremadura.	
Entre Tajo.	
Alentajo.	
Algarva.	
SWITZERLAND.	HELVETIA.
1. Bern.	1, 2, 3, 4. Ambrones.
2. Friburg.	
3. Basil or Bale	
4. Lucern.	
5. Soloturn.	
6. Schaffhausen.	6, 7, 8, 9, 10. Tigurini.
7. Zurick.	
8. Appenzel.	
9. Zug.	
10. Schweitz.	
11. Glaris.	
12. Uri.	
13. Underwald.	
14. Geneva.	14. Nantuates.
15. Grisons, &c.	15. Veragri, Vallis Pennina, Lepontii.
ITALY.	ITALIA.
1. Savoy.	1. Lepontii, Segusini, Taurini.
2. Piedmont.	2. Orobi.
3. Montferrat.	3.
4. Milan.	4. Insubres.
5. Genoa.	5.
6. Parma.	6. Anamani.
7. Modena.	7. Boii.
8. Mantua.	8. Cenomani.
9. Venice.	9. Venetia.
10. Trent.	10. Tridentini.
11. The Popedom.	11. Lingones, Senones, Picnum, Umbria, Sabini, Pars Latii.
12. Tuscany.	12. Tuscia vel Etruria.
13. Lucca.	13. Pars Tusciæ.
14. San Marino.	14. Pars Umbriæ.
15. Kingdom of Naples.	15. Samnium, Pars Latii, Apulia, Campania, Lucania, Bruttium.
ITALIAN ISLANDS.	INSULÆ ITALICÆ.
1. Sicily.	1. Sicilia, Sicania, vel Trinacria.
2. Sardinia.	2. Sardo, vel Sardinia.
3. Corsica.	3. Cyrnus, vel Corsica.
4. Malta.	4. Melita.

Liguria.

Gallia Cisalpina vel Togata.

MODERN EUROPE.	ANCIENT EUROPE.
5. Lipari Islands.	5. Liparіæ Insulæ.
6. Capri, Ischia, &c.	6. Capreæ, Ischia, &c.
HUNGARY.	
TRANSYLVANIA.	DACIA.
SCLAVONIA.	PANNONIA.
CROATIA.	ILLYRICUM.
TURKEY IN EUROPE.	
1. Dalmatia.	1. Dalmatia.
2. Bosnia.	2. Mœsia Superior.
3. Servia.	3. Dacia Ripensis.
4. Wallachia.	4. Getæ.
5. Moldavia and Bessarabia.	5. Pars Daciæ.
6. Bulgaria.	6. Mœsia Inferior.
7. Albania.	Græcia. 7. Epirus.
8. Macedonia.	8. Macedonia.
9. Romania.	9. Thracia.
10. Livadia.	10. Thessalia.
11. Morea.	11. Peloponnesus.
12. Budzîac Tartary or Bessarabia.	12. Scythia et pars Daciæ.
13. Little Tartary.	13. Parva Scythia.
14. Crimea.	14. Taurica Chersonesus.
GREEK ISLANDS.	INSULÆ MARIS IONII.
1. Corfu.	1. Corcyra.
2. Cephalonia.	2. Cephalenia.
3. Zante.	3. Zacynthus.
4. Ithace, Thiace, &c.	4. Ithaca, &c.
GREEK ISLANDS IN THE ARCHIPELAGO.	INSULÆ MARIS ÆGÆI.
1. Candia.	1. Creta.
2. Negropont.	2. Eubœa
3. Stalimene.	3. Lemnos.
4. Scyro, &c.	4. Scyros, &c.

GREAT BRITAIN.

SCOTLAND.	SCOTIA.
1. Edinburgh.	1. } Damnii. } Vecturiones.
2. Haddington.	2. }
3. Berwick.	3. Ottodini. }
4. Roxburgh.	4.
5. Selkirk.	5. } Selgovæ.
6. Dumfries.	6. }
7. Kircudbright.	7. }
8. Peebles.	8.
9. Wigton.	9. } Novantes.
10. Lanerk.	10. }
11. Air.	11. }
12. Dumbarton.	12.
13. Bute.	13. } Damnii. } Picti.
14. Renfrew.	14. }
15. Stirling.	15. }
16. Linlithgow.	16. }
17. Fife.	17.
18. Clackmannan.	18. } Caledonii. } Picti.
19. Kinross.	19. }
20. Perth.	20. }
21. Argyle.	21. Epidii, Gadeni, Cerones.

MODERN EUROPE.	ANCIENT EUROPE.
22. Kincardine.	22. Vernicones. } Attacoti.
23. Forfar.	23. Horestæ. } Attacoti.
24. Aberdeen.	24. } Tæzali. } Attacoti.
25. Banff.	25. } Tæzali. } Attacoti.
26. Elgin.	26. } Tæzali. } Attacoti.
27. Nairn.	27. } Vacomagi.
28. Inverness.	28. } Vacomagi.
29. Ross.	29. } Cantæ. } Scoti.
30. Cromarty.	30. } Cantæ. } Scoti.
31. Southerland.	31. } Cantæ. } Scoti.
32. Caithness.	32. Mertæ. } Scoti.
33. Orkney.	33. Orcades.
34. Shetland.	34. Thule.
ENGLAND.	ANGLIA.
1. Cornwall.	1. } Damnonii.
2. Devonshire.	2. } Damnonii.
3. Dorsetshire.	3. Durotriges.
4. Hampshire.	4. } Belgæ.
5. Somersetshire.	5. } Belgæ.
6. Wiltshire.	6. } Belgæ.
7. Berkshire.	7. Attrebatii.
8. Oxfordshire.	8. } Dobuni.
9. Gloucestershire.	9. } Dobuni.
10. Monmouthshire.	10. } Silures.
11. Herefordshire.	11. } Silures.
12. Worcestershire.	12. } Cornavii.
13. Staffordshire.	13. } Cornavii.
14. Shropshire.	14. } Cornavii.
15. Essex.	15. Trinobantes.
16. Hartfordshire.	16. Catieuchlani.
17. Kent.	17. Cantii.
18. Surry.	18. } Regni.
19. Sussex.	19. } Regni.
20. Norfolk.	20. } Simeni, vel Iceni.
21. Suffolk.	21. } Simeni, vel Iceni.
22. Cambridgeshire.	22. } Catieuchlani.
23. Huntingdonshire.	23. } Catieuchlani.
24. Bedfordshire.	24. } Catieuchlani.
25. Buckinghamshire.	25. Attrebatii.
26. Lincolnshire.	26. } Coritani.
27. Nottinghamshire.	27. } Coritani.
28. Derbyshire.	28. } Coritani.
29. Rutlandshire.	29. } Coritani.
30. Leicestershire.	30. } Coritani.
31. Warwickshire.	31. Cornavi.
32. Northamptonshire.	32. Catieuchlani.
33. Northumberland.	33. } Otadeni.
34. Durham.	34. } Otadeni.
35. Yorkshire.	35. } Brigantes.
36. Lancashire.	36. } Brigantes.
37. Westmoreland.	37. } Brigantes.
38. Cumberland.	38. } Brigantes.
39. Cheshire.	39. Cornavii.
40. Middlesex.	40. Attrebates et Catieuchlani.

MODERN EUROPE.	ANCIENT EUROPE.
WALES.	
1. Anglesey.	1. Mona Insula.
2. Flintshire.	2.
3. Montgomery.	3.
4. Denbighshire.	4. Ordovices.
5. Carnarvonshire.	5.
6. Merioneth.	6.
7. Cardiganshire.	7.
8. Carmarthenshire.	8. Demetæ.
9. Pembrokeshire.	9.
10. Radnorshire.	10.
11. Brecknockshire.	11. Silures.
12. Glamorganshire.	12.
IRELAND.	**HIBERNIA, vel IRENE.**
Leinster. 1. Louth.	1. Voluntii.
Leinster. 2. Meath East.	2.
Leinster. 3. Meath West.	3. Cauci.
Leinster. 4. Longford.	4. Auteri.
Leinster. 5. Dublin.	5.
Leinster. 6. Kildare.	6. Blanii.
Leinster. 7. King's County.	7.
Leinster. 8. Queen's County.	8. Corondi.
Leinster. 9. Wicklow.	9. Blanii.
Leinster. 10. Carlow.	10.
Leinster. 11. Wexford.	11. Manapii.
Leinster. 12. Kilkenny.	12. Coriondi.
Ulster. 13. Donnegal or Tyrconnel.	13. Vennicnii.
Ulster. 14. Londonderry.	14.
Ulster. 15. Antrim.	15. Robogdii.
Ulster. 16. Tyrone.	16.
Ulster. 17. Fermanagh.	17. Erdini.
Ulster. 18. Armagh.	18.
Ulster. 19. Down.	19. Voluntii.
Ulster. 20. Monaghan.	20.
Ulster. 21. Cavan.	21. Cauci.
Munster. 22. Cork County.	22. Vodiæ, Iverni.
Munster. 23. Waterford.	23.
Munster. 24. Tipperary.	24. Brigantes.
Munster. 25. Limerick.	25.
Munster. 26. Kerry.	26. Velabori.
Munster. 27. Clare.	27.
	Gangani.
Connaught. 28. Galway.	28.
Connaught. 29. Roscommon.	29. Auteri.
Connaught. 30. Mayo.	30.
Connaught. 31. Sligoe.	31. Nagnatæ.
Connaught. 32. Leitrim.	32.
BRITANNIC ISLANDS.	**INSULÆ BRITANNICÆ.**
1. Shetland and Orkney.	1. Thule.
2. Western Isles of Scotland.	2. Ebudes Insulæ.
3. Man.	3. Monæda vel Mona.
4. Anglesey.	4. Mona.
5. Wight.	5. Vectis.

MODERN ASIA.	ANCIENT ASIA.
TURKEY IN ASIA.	**ASIA MINOR.**
1. Natolia.	1. Mysia, Lydia, Caria, Phrygia, Bithynia, Galatia, Paphlagonia.
2. Amasia or Siwas.	2. Pontus.
3. Aladulia.	3. Armenia.
4. Caramania.	4. Cappadocia, Cilicia, &c.
5. Irak.	5. Babylonia, Chaldea.
6. Diarbeck.	6. Mesopotamia.
7. Curdistan.	7. Assyria.
8. Turcomania.	8. } Armenia Major.
9. Georgia.	9. }
10. Syria and Palestine.	10. Syria, Palmyrene, Phœnicia, Judæa.
ARABIA.	**ARABIA.**
Arabia Petræa.	Arabia Petræa.
Arabia Deserta.	Arabia Deserta.
Arabia Felix.	Arabia Felix.
PERSIA.	**PERSIA.**
1. Chorassan.	1. Pars Hyrcaniæ et Sogdianæ.
2. Balk, Sablustan, Candahar.	2. Bactrania.
3. Sigistan.	3. Drangiana.
4. Makeran.	4.
5. Kerman.	5. Gedrosia.
6. Farsistan.	6. Persis.
7. Chusestan.	7. Susiana.
8. Irak Agem.	8. Parthia.
9. Curdestan.	9. Pars Assyriæ.
10. Aderbeitzen.	10. Media.
11. Georgia.	11. }
12. Gangea.	12. } Iberia, Colchis, et Albania.
13. Dagestan.	13. }
14. Mazanderam.	
15. Gilan Taberistan.	15. Pars Hyrcaniæ.
16. Chirvan.	16. Pars Albaniæ.
INDIA.	**INDIA.**
Mogol.	*India intra Gangem.*
Delhi.	Palibothra.
Agra.	Agora.
Cambaia.	Regna Pori et Taxilis.
Bengal.	
India within the Ganges.	
Decan.	Dachanos.
Golconda.	Prasii *vel* Gangaridæ.
Bisnagar.	
Malabar.	Male.
Island of Ceylon.	Taprobana Insula *vel* Salice.
India beyond the Ganges.	*India extra Gangem.*
Pegu.	
Tonquin.	
Cochinchina.	
Siam.	Sinarum Regio.
	CHINA.
Niuche.	
Corea.	

MODERN ASIA.	ANCIENT ASIA.
Laotong.	Sinæ.
Pekin.	
Xansi.	Serica.
Xensi.	
Xantum.	Cathæa.
Nanking.	
Chekiam.	
Honan.	
Huquam.	
Kiamsi.	
Fokien.	
Canton.	
Suchuen.	
Quecheu.	
Yunam.	
CHINESE ISLANDS.	
Formosa.	
Ainan.	
Macao.	
Bashee Islands.	
RUSSIA IN ASIA.	
1. Astracan.	1. Sarmatia Asiatica.
2. Orenburg.	2. }
3. Casan.	3. } Scythia intra Imaum.
4. Siberia—Tobolsk, Jeniseia, Irkutsk, Kamschatka.	4. }
INDEPENDENT TARTARY.	
1. Great Bucharia.	1. Bactriana, Sogdiana
2. Karasm.	2. Aria.
ALUTH TARTARS.	**SCYTHIA extra IMAUM.**
1. Little Bucharia.	1.
2. Casgar.	2.
3. Turkestan.	3.
4. Kalmac Tartars.	4.
5. Thibet.	5.
6. Little Thibet.	6.
CHINESE TARTARY.	**SINÆ.**
Kalkas.	
Mongol Tartars.	
Mantchou Tartars.	
Corea.	
ISLANDS OF CHINESE TARTARY.	
Sagalien-Ula-hata.	
Jedso.	
ISLANDS OF JAPAN.	
Japan or Niphon.	
Xicoco.	
Ximo.	
PHILIPPINE ISLES.	
Lucon or Manilla.	
Mindanao, &c.	
MARIAN OR LADRONE. ISLANDS.	
Tinian.	

MODERN ASIA.	ANCIENT ASIA.
ISLES OF SUNDA.	
Borneo.	
Sumatra.	
Java, &c.	
MOLUCCA ISLES.	
Celebes.	
Amboyna.	
Ceram.	
Timor.	
Flores, &c.	
MALDIVA ISLES.	

MODERN AFRICA.	ANCIENT AFRICA.
BARBARY.	
1. Morocco.	1. Mauritania Tingitana.
2. Algiers.	2. Mauritania Cæsariensis.
3. Tunis.	3. Numidia, Africa Propria.
4. Tripoli.	4. Tripolitana.
5. Barca.	5. Cyrenaica, Libya Superior.
1. Egypt.	1. Ægyptus.
2. Biledulgerid.	2. Libya Inferior, Gætulia.
3. Zaara, or the Desert.	3. Solitudines.
4. Negroland.	4. Autololes.
5. Guinea.	
6. Upper Ethiopia——— Nubia, Abyssinia, Abex.	6. Æthiopiæ et Libyæ pars.
7. Lower Ethiopia———	7. Æthiopiæ pars.
8. Lower Guinea——— Loango, Congo, Angola, Benguela, Matanau.	
9. Ajan.	
10. Zanguebar.	
11. Monomotapa.	
12. Monoemugi.	
13. Sofola.	
14. Terra de Natal.	
15. Caffraria, or country of the Hettentots.	

NORTH AMERICA.

BRITISH AMERICA.

1. The countries on the east and west side of Baffin's and Hudson's Bays.
2. Labrador, or New Britain.
3. Canada.
4. Nova Scotia.

Islands.

Newfoundland, Cape Breton.

British Islands in the West Indies.

Bermudas, Bahama Islands, Jamaica, St. Christopher's, Nevis, Montserrat, Antigua, Dominica, St. Vincent, Tobago, Grenada, Barbadoes, &c. &c.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

New England—Maine, New-Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode-Island.
State of New-York, New-Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North-Carolina, South-Carolina, Georgia, Tennessee, Kentucky, Ohio, Indiana, Louisiana, Alabama, Missouri, Mississippi, Illinois.
The district of Columbia, the territories of Michigan, Arkansas.

SPANISH AMERICA.

Mexico or New Spain, New Mexico.

NORTH AMERICA.

Spanish Islands in the West Indies.

Cuba, Porto Rico, west part of St. Domingo, Trinidad, Margarita, Cubagua, &c.

Dutch Islands in the West Indies.

Part of St. Martin's Isle, Eustatius, Aves, Buenos Ayres, Curacoa, Aruba.

French Islands in the West Indies.

Miquelon, St. Pierre, part of St. Martin's Isle, St. Bartholomew, Martinico, Guadaloupe, Desiada, Mariegalant, St. Lucia, part of St. Domingo.

Danish Islands in the West Indies.

St. Thomas, Santa Cruz.

SOUTH AMERICA.

FRENCH.

Part of the Province of Guiana, Cayenne, &c.

SPANISH.

Terra Firma, Country of the Amazons, Peru, Chili, Terra Magellanica, Paraguay, Tucuman.

DUTCH.

Part of Guiana, Surinam, &c.

PORTUGUESE.

Brazil, and many Islands on the coast, part of Guiana.

ANCIENT EMPIRES.

The Empire of Assyria, under Ninus and Semiramis, about 2200 before J. C., comprehended, Asia Minor, Colchis, Assyria, Media Chaldea, Egypt.

The Empire of Assyria, as divided about 820 before J. C., formed three Kingdoms. Media, Babylo-Chaldea, (Syria and Chaldea,) Lydia, (all Asia Minor.)

The Empire of the Persians, under Darius Hystaspes, 522 before J. C., comprehended, Persis, Susiana, Chaldea, Assyria, Media, Bactriana, Armenia, Asia, Parthia, Iberia, Albania, Colchis, Asia Minor, Egypt, part of Ethiopia, part of Scythia.

The Empire of Alexander the great, 330 before J. C., consisted of, 1, all Macedonia and Greece, except Peloponnesus; 2, all the Persian Empire, as above described; 3, India to the banks of the Indus on the east, and the Iaxartes or Tanais on the north.

The Empire of Alexander was thus divided, 306 before J. C., between Ptolemy, Cassander, Lysimachus, and Seleucus

Empire of Ptolemy.

Lybia, Arabia, Cœlosyria, Palestine.

Empire of Cassander.

Macedonia, Greece.

Empire of Lysimachus.

Thrace, Bithynia.

Empire of Seleucus.

Syria, and all the rest of Alexander's Empire.

The Empire of the Parthians, 140 before J. C., comprehended Parthia, Hyrcania, Media, Persis, Bactriana, Babylonia, Mesopotamia, India to the Indus.

The Roman Empire, under the Kings, was confined to the city of Rome, and a few miles round it.

The Roman Empire, at the end of the Republic, comprehended all Italy, great part of Gaul, part of Britain, Africa Proper, great part of Spain, Illyria, Istria, Liburnia, Dalmatia, Achaia, Macedonia, Dardania, Mœsia, Thracia, Pontus, Armenia, Judæa, Cilicia, Syria, Egypt.

Under the Emperors the following countries were reduced into Roman Provinces.

All Spain, the Alpes Maritimæ, Piedmont, &c. Rhætia, Noricum, Pannonia, and Mœsia, Pontus, Armenia, Assyria, Arabia, Egypt.

Constantius Chlorus and Galerius divided the Empire into Eastern and Western; and under Constantine each Empire had a distinct capital or seat of government.

The extent of each division was fluctuating from time to time; but, in general, the Western Empire comprehended Italy, Illyria, Africa, Spain, the Gauls, Britain.

The Eastern Empire comprehended Asia Minor, Pontus, Armenia, Assyria, Media, &c. Egypt, Thrace, Dacia, Macedonia.

The EMPIRE of CHARLEMAGNE, A. D. 800, comprehended France, Marca, Hispanica, (or Navarre and Catalonia,) Majorca, Minorca, and Ivica, Corsica, Italy as far south as Naples, Istria, Liburnia, Dalmatia Rhætia, Vindelica, Noricum, Germany, from the Rhine to the Oder, and to the banks of the Baltic.

France contained, 1, Neustria, comprehending Bretany, Normandy, Isle of France, Orleannois; 2, Austria, comprehending Picardy, and Champagne; 3, Aquitania, comprehending Guienne, and Gascony; 4, Burgundia, comprehending Burgundy, Lionnois, Languedoc, Dauphine, Provence.

NAMES OF THE PRINCIPAL RIVERS IN EUROPE.

ANCIENT.	MODERN.
1. Rha.	1. Wolga.
2. Tanais.	2. Don.
3. Borystenes.	3. Nieper.
4. Tyras.	4. Niester.
5. Danubius or Ister.	5. Danube.
6. Padus.	6. Po.
7. Rhodanus.	7. Rhone.
8. Iberus.	8. Ebro.
9. Bætis.	9. Guadalquiver.
10. Anas.	10. Guadiana.
11. Tagus.	11. Tayo.
12. Durius.	12. Douro.
13. Garumna.	13. Garonne.
14. Liger.	14. Loire.
15. Sequana.	15. Seine.
16. Samara.	16. Somme.
17. Scaldis.	17. Scheldt.
18. Mosa.	18. Maese.
19. Rhenus.	19. Rhine.
20. Visurgis.	20. Weser.
21. Albis.	21. Elbe.
22. Viadrus.	22. Oder.

The Vistula, the Dwina at Riga, and the Dwina at Archangel.

END.

QUESTIONS

FOR THE

EXAMINATION OF SCHOLARS

IN

TYTLER'S ELEMENTS

OF

GENERAL HISTORY.

BY AN EXPERIENCED TEACHER.

CONCORD, N. H.

PRINTED BY ISAAC HILL.

1825.

DISTRICT OF NEW-HAMPSHIRE, *to wit*:

District Clerk's office.

BE IT REMEMBERED, that on the fourth day of September, A. D. 1823, and in the forty-eighth year of the Independence of the United States of America, ISAAC HILL, of the said District, hath deposited in this office the title of a book, the right whereof he claims as proprietor, in the words following, *to wit*: —

"Elements of General History, ancient and modern. By Alexander Fraser Tytler, F. R. S. E. Professor of History in the University of Edinburgh. With a continuation, terminating at the decease of King George III, 1820. By Rev. Edward Nares, D. D. Professor of Modern History in the University of Oxford. To which are added, a concise History of the United States; an improved Table of Chronology; a comparative view of Ancient and Modern Geography; and Questions on each section. Adapted for the use of Schools and Academies. By an experienced Teacher."

In conformity to the act of the Congress of the United States, entitled, "An act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of maps, charts, and books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies during the times therein mentioned," and also an act, entitled, "An act supplementary to an act, entitled an act for the encouragement of learning, by securing the copies of maps, charts, and books, to the authors and proprietors of such copies during the times therein mentioned, and extending the benefits thereof to the arts of designing, engraving, and etching historical and other prints."

WILLIAM CLAGGETT, *Clerk*
of the District of New-Hampshire.

A true copy of Record

Attest.....WILLIAM CLAGGETT, Clerk

QUESTIONS.

PART FIRST.

SECTION I.

1. What books afford the earliest authentic history of the ages immediately following the deluge?
2. When were Babylon and Nineveh built?
3. By whom were they built?
4. Who are said to have raised Assyria to a high degree of splendour?
5. What is the condition of the early parts of Egyptian history?
6. Who was the first king of Egypt?
7. How was Egypt divided?

SECTION II.

8. What is the earliest mode of government?
9. Of what description were the first monarchies?
10. What was the rank of the kings of Scripture?
11. What was the character of the first penal laws in human society?
12. What were the earliest laws framed for the benefit of society?
13. What singular usages prevailed among the ancient nations relating to matrimony?
14. What laws next succeeded in order to those of marriage?
15. What were the earliest methods of authenticating contracts?
16. What nation used hieroglyphics, and for what purpose were they used?
17. What were the methods for recording historical facts, and publishing them among the ancients?
18. What are among the earliest writings that have existed?
19. How was the priesthood anciently exercised?
20. Of what are marble arts the offspring?
21. Of what are some of the earliest of them?
22. What were the first sciences cultivated?

SECTION III.

23. To what nation is most of the knowledge of ancient nations to be traced?
24. How did that knowledge descend to modern nations?
25. What presumption does the country afford of the antiquity of the Egyptian empire?
26. To what are the inundations of the river Nile owing?
27. What was the government of Egypt?
28. What was the character of their penal laws?
29. What was the manner of conducting funeral rites in Egypt?
30. What regulation was there concerning the borrowing of money?
31. In the knowledge and cultivation of what useful arts and sciences were the Egyptians distinguished?
32. What examples of their architecture still remain?
33. When were the pyramids built?
34. For what were they probably built?

35. What was the national character of the Egyptians?
36. What circumstances served to debase them in the opinion of contemporary nations?

SECTION IV.

37. By what name were the Phœnicians known in Scripture?
38. For what are we indebted to them?
39. What is said of them in the time of Abraham?
40. What is the antiquity of their writings?

SECTION V.

41. To what early nations were the Grecians indebted for their first rudiments of civilization?
42. Who were the ancient inhabitants of Greece?
43. What colony settled in the country about the time of Moses?
44. Who settled Attica and at what time?
45. Who established the court of Areopagus?
46. Who established the Amphictyonic Council?
47. Who introduced into Greece, and at what time, alphabetic writing?
48. How many letters did the alphabet then contain?
49. What was then the mode of writing?

SECTION VI.

50. What is said of the Pelasgi, of Ancient Greece?
51. What was a predominant characteristic of the early Greeks?
52. What were the names of their four solemn Games, as they were termed?
53. Of what did they consist?
54. What good political effects did these games have?

SECTION VII.

55. Who instituted the Eleusinian mysteries?
56. What was the nature of these mysteries?
57. Who laid the foundation of the grandeur of Attica?
58. When and how did he do it?
59. What was the object of the Argonautic expedition?
60. What was the character of the attack and defence in the sieges of Thebes and Troy?
61. On whose authority rests the detail of the war of Troy?
62. What are the principal facts recorded of that war by Homer?
63. How were military expeditions then conducted?

SECTION VIII.

64. When did the Greeks begin to colonize?
65. Who was elected the first chief magistrate of the Athenian republic?
66. What caused the Greeks to seek refuge in other countries by establishing colonies?
67. What caused Greece to abolish the regal and establish a republican government?
68. What distinguished civilians arose in Sparta and Athens at this time?

SECTION IX.

69. What period was Lycurgus invested with the power of reforming and new-modelling the constitution of his country?
70. What was the government of Sparta as new-modelled by Lycurgus?
71. To what did he particularly bend his attention?
72. How did he divide the territory?

73. What regulation did he make concerning the use of money?
74. By whom were the necessary arts practised?
75. What was the course of Spartan education?
76. By what was the general excellence of the institutions of Lycurgus impaired?
77. How were the slaves treated?
78. What was the end of the institutions of Lycurgus?

SECTION X.

79. What was the nature of the change in the Athenian constitution when the regal office was abolished?
80. What was the tenure by which the Archonship was held?
81. Who attempted a reform in the constitution, 624 B. C.?
82. When did Solon attain the Archonship?
83. What was his character?
84. How did he divide the citizens?
85. How did he counterbalance the weight of the popular assemblies?
86. How did the particular laws of Athens compare with her form of government?
87. What was the nature of the laws relating to debtors and slaves?
88. What was the condition of women at this time in Athens?
89. What was one of the most iniquitous and absurd peculiarities of the Athenian and some of the other Grecian governments?
90. How were the arts viewed in Athens?
91. How did the character of the Athenians compare with that of the Spartans?
92. To whom were the liberties of Athens surrendered, 550 B. C.?
93. Who afterwards restored the democracy?

SECTION XI.

94. Under whom did the first empire of the Assyrians terminate?
95. What three monarchies arose from its ruins?
96. What king of Assyria, led the Jews into captivity, took Jerusalem and Tyre, and subdued Egypt?
97. Who was the successor of Cambyses in the throne of Persia?
98. What countries did Cyrus annex to his empire?
99. What was the government of Persia?
100. To whose care was the children and youth of Persia committed for education?
101. What was the nature of the laws in Persia?
102. What was the religion of Persia?
103. What was the sacred book of the Persians called?
104. On what is the theology of the Zendavesta founded?

SECTION XII.

105. What king of Persia invaded Greece?
106. Where was the Persian army defeated?
107. Who commanded the Greeks in the battle of Marathon?
108. What reward did Miltiades receive for his eminent services from the Athenians?
109. Who were the successors of Miltiades in the war with the Persians?
110. Who succeeded Darius in the command of the Persians?
111. With what force did Xerxes attempt the conquest of Greece?
112. Who was Leonidas?
113. With what force did Leonidas contend with the vast army of Xerxes?
114. At what place was it?
115. What was the result?

116. What was the success of Xerxes with his fleet at sea?
117. Where were the Persians totally defeated on land, by the combined army of the Athenians and Lacedæmonians?
118. What was the end of Xerxes?
119. What was the national character of the Greeks at this time?

SECTION XIII.

120. Who governed Athens after the Persian war?
121. In what manner did he govern it?
122. What gave rise to the war during the reign of Pericles between Athens and Lacedæmon?
123. On what account was Alcibiades condemned to death for treason?
124. By whom did the Lacedæmonians reduce the power of the Athenians?
125. What eminent philosopher was then in Athens at this time?
126. What was particularly disgraceful to the Athenians in regard to him?
127. What is the subject of the history written by Xenophon?

SECTION XIV.

128. On the decline of Athens and Sparta, what other Grecian Republic rose to a high degree of eminence among the contemporary states?
129. What led to the war between Thebes and Sparta?
130. What two distinguished Generals did Thebes employ in conducting this war?
131. How did this war terminate?

SECTION XV.

132. Who at this time attempted to bring the whole of Greece under his dominion?
133. What caused what was called the *Sacred* War of this period?
134. What distinguished Grecian orator exposed the artful designs of Philip?
135. In what battle was the fate of Greece, so that all her states became subject to Philip?
136. What great enterprise did he attempt?
137. Did he complete it?
138. Why not?

SECTION XVI.

139. Who was the successor of Philip?
140. At what age did Alexander ascend the throne of Macedon?
141. How large was his army at this time?
142. What was his first enterprise?
143. Who was king of Persia at this time?
144. With what force did Darius meet Alexander?
145. Where did they meet?
146. What was the result of the battle of Granicus?
147. What were the respective losses of the Greeks and Persians in the battle of Issus?
148. What opportunity did Alexander have for th display of generosity after the battle of Issus?
149. What was the consequence of the battle of Issus?
150. What caused Alexander to storm and subject the city of Tyre?
151. What was the fate of its inhabitants?
152. What was disgraceful to Alexander in his capture of Gaza?
153. What opened Egypt to Alexander's victorious arms?
154. What city did he build in his return from Egypt?

155. Who met Alexander at Arbela with an army of 700,000 men?
156. What was the result of the battle at Arbela?
157. When was Persia conquered by Alexander?
158. What project did he attempt after the conquest of Persia?
159. What prevented his conquest of India?
160. What became of Alexander on finding a limit to his victories?

SECTION XVII.

161. What wish did Alexander express as to a successor?
162. What became of his family?
163. Which were the most powerful monarchies formed from his vast empires?

SECTION XVIII.

164. What distinguished orator of Greece attempted to arouse his countrymen, to shake off the yoke of Macedon, on the death of Alexander?
165. What empire arose in Europe on the decline of the Macedonian power?
166. How was Greece added to the Roman empire?
167. When was the conquest of Greece completed?

SECTION XIX.

168. What is said of the nature of the Republican government of Greece?
169. What was the condition of the people under them?
170. In what periods of the Grecian history are we to look for splendid examples of patriotism?
171. What is the most remarkable circumstance that strikes us on comparing the latter with the more early periods of the history of the Greeks?

SECTION XX.

172. In what description of the arts did the Grecians excel?
173. Which of the Fine Arts did they carry to the greatest degree of perfection?
174. In whose reign did the Fine Arts flourish most?
175. What were their three orders of architecture?
176. What other orders of architecture are there?
177. What was the state of sculpture in Greece?
178. How did the paintings and music of the Grecians compare with those of the moderns?

SECTION XXI.

179. How does poetry compare with prose as to antiquity?
180. When did Homer flourish?
181. Who are some of the other principal poets of ancient Greece?
182. When was the origin of dramatic composition among the Greeks?

SECTION XXII.

183. What eminent historians of Greece were contemporaries?
184. When did they flourish?
185. Who were some of the latter distinguished historians of Greece?
186. What is said of Plutarch's Lives of Illustrious Men?

SECTION XXIII.

187. What was the most ancient school of philosophy in Greece?

188. Who founded the Italian sect of philosophers in Greece?
189. When did Socrates flourish?
190. Who founded the Academic sect?
191. Who founded the Peripatetic sect?
192. Who are some of the other Greek philosophers?
193. What is the effect of the Greek philosophy on morality and the progress of useful knowledge?

SECTION XXIV.

194. After the conquest of Greece what Power became an object of particular importance?
195. What was the character of the first inhabitants of Italy?
196. Who were they?
197. What is the opinion of Dionysius concerning the origin of Rome?
198. What is the vulgar account of the origin of the city built by Romulus?
199. At what time was it founded?
200. Who were the most formidable enemies of the early Romans?
201. Who was the second king of Rome?
202. Who added 100 Plebeians to the Roman Senate?
203. Who removed the poorer citizens from all share in the government of Rome?
204. What became of Servius Tullius?
205. Who succeeded him on the throne?
206. What caused the expulsion of Tarquinius?
207. What was the first retrenchment in the power of the Roman Senate?
208. What use did the early Romans make of their victories?
209. How long did the regal government of Rome continue?
210. How many kings were there?
211. What is said of the wars in which Rome was almost continually engaged?

SECTION XXV.

212. What government succeeded the regal one in Rome?
213. Who were the two first consuls?
214. What law is mentioned that was made under the direction of Valerius?
215. What gave rise to the office of Dictator?
216. What was the power of the Dictator?
217. What gave rise to the office of Tribune; and what were the powers of that office?

SECTION XXVI.

218. What effect had the office of Tribune on the powers of the Senate?
219. Under what circumstances was Valerio made Tribune?
220. When did the Roman constitution become a complete democracy?

SECTION XXVII.

221. For what purpose were the Decemviri chosen?
222. What were the laws called, which they framed?
223. At what time were they made?
224. With what powers were the Decemviri invested?
225. Who was at the head of the Decemvirate?
226. What caused the abolition of this office?
227. How long did it exist?

SECTION XXVIII.

228. What two barriers separated the patricians and plebeians?
229. What two offices were created, 437 B. C.?
230. What successful expedient did the senate adopt for filling the Roman armies?
231. What city was taken by Camillus?
232. At what period and after how long a siege?
233. To what event do the Roman writers attribute the loss of all the records and monuments of their early history?
234. What is there singular in regard to most of the revolutions in Rome?

SECTION XXIX.

235. How long after the foundation of their city did Rome become mistress of all Italy?
236. What was the policy observed by the Romans with respect to the nations they had conquered?
237. What gave rise to the Punic wars?

SECTION XXX.

238. By whom and when was Carthage founded?
239. How many smaller cities were under the dominion of Carthage at the time of the Punic wars?
240. What was the form of government?
241. To what was the wealth and splendour of Carthage owing?

SECTION XXXI.

242. Who founded Syracuse?
243. What was the government of it?

SECTION XXXII.

244. Where did the war between Rome and Carthage commence?
245. What Roman consul was taken by the Carthaginians in the first Punic war?
246. What patriotic act did Regulus perform when a prisoner to the Carthaginians?
247. How did the first Punic war terminate?
248. How long did the peace between Rome and Carthage continue?
249. How did the second Punic war begin?
250. Who was the Carthaginian general in this war?
251. How did Hannibal conduct this war?
252. Where did the Romans meet with complete defeat?
253. How many were slain in the battle of Cannæ?
254. What is supposed would have been the consequence had Hannibal improved this victory?
255. In what way did the Romans compel the Carthaginians to sue for peace?
256. What Roman general carried war to the gates of Carthage?
257. At what time did the second Punic war close?
258. When did the third commence?
259. What was the issue of this war?
260. When was Carthage destroyed?
261. What other success attended the Romans this year?

SECTION XXXIII.

262. What two persons, at this time, undertook to reform the corruptions of the Romans?

263. What circumstances attending the war of Jugurtha gave decisive proof of the corruption of the Roman manners?
264. What became of Jugurtha?
265. Between what two rivals did a civil war now break out in Rome?
266. What became of Marius?
267. To what office was Sylla afterwards elected?
268. What magnanimous act characterized the latter part of his life?
269. Between whom was the civil war revived after the death of Sylla?
270. What conspiracy, at this time, threatened the destruction of Rome?
271. By whose provident zeal and patriotism was it extinguished?
272. What distinguished individual now rose into notice?
273. Under what circumstances was the first Triumvirate formed?
274. What Roman general invaded and conquered Britain, 54 B. C.
275. Who procured the banishment of Cicero?
276. Who effected his recall from exile?
277. What dissolved the Triumvirate?

SECTION XXXIV.

278. What proposition was made at this time by Cæsar?
279. Did Pompey accede to it?
280. Did war ensue between them?
281. What decree did the senate pronounce?
282. Where was a decisive battle fought?
283. What became of Pompey?
284. In what war was the famous library of Alexandria burnt?
285. What was the character of Cæsar's administration of the government, after the complete overthrow of Pompey's partisans?
286. To what offices was he appointed?
287. What was the end of Cæsar?
288. Under what circumstances was the second Triumvirate formed?
289. For what did Antony summon Cleopatra to appear before him?
290. What caused the overthrow of Antony?
291. What became of him?
292. What induced Cleopatra to destroy herself?

SECTION XXXV.

293. What power was given to every head of a family?
294. What were reckoned the highest points of female merit?
295. What qualifications contributed most to elevate persons to the highest offices and dignities of the state?

SECTION XXXVI.

296. What was the state of literature in the early ages of the Roman republic?
297. Who were the principal Roman historians?
298. Who were the principal Roman poets?

SECTION XXXVII.

299. Was much attention paid to the study of philosophy in the early periods of Rome?
300. At what time did philosophy become an object of attention with the Romans?
301. Who first diffused a taste for the study of philosophy among the Romans?
302. Who may be reckoned their most eminent philosopher?

QUESTIONS.

SECTION XXXVIII.

303. What were some of the most distinguishing traits of character in the early Romans?
304. What contributed chiefly to their change of character and manners?
305. What were some of the amusements of the Romans?

SECTION XXXIX.

306. To what may be ascribed the extensive conquests of the Romans?
307. What was the number of soldiers in a Roman legion?
308. When is it supposed that the tactic of the Romans was at its height of excellence?
309. By whom was the art of entrenchment carried to great perfection?
310. When was the naval military art first known among the Romans?

SECTION XL.

311. When did the most material change for the worse in the national character of the Romans take place?
312. What were the morals of the Romans in the last ages of the commonwealth?
313. From what circumstances did Roman virtue so rapidly decline?
314. To what did the Roman republic owe its dissolution?

SECTION XLI.

315. What battle decided the fate of the commonwealth and made Octavius master of Rome?
316. By what name was he now called?
317. What event said to be productive of universal joy distinguished his reign?
318. What methods did he practice to keep himself in the favour of the people?
319. When did Augustus die and at what age?
320. How long did he reign?
321. Who succeeded him?
322. What was the character of Tiberius?
323. In what manner was he related to Augustus?
324. What was the end of Tiberius?
325. In what year of his reign was Jesus Christ crucified?
326. Who was the successor of Tiberius?
327. What was his character?
328. What became of him?
329. Who succeeded Caligula?

SECTION XLII.

330. By what acts of violence was the reign of Nero, the successor of Claudius, characterised?
331. Who were the three next Roman emperors?
332. Under which of the emperors was Jerusalem taken?
333. Who succeeded Vespasian?
334. What was the character of Titus?
335. How was it suspected Titus came to his death?
336. What three emperors next in order succeeded Domitian?
337. What was the character of Trajan and Adrian?

SECTION XLIII.

338. For what length of time did the Antonines reign?
339. What was their character?

340. What length of time was there from the death of the Antonines to the accession of Diocletian?
341. What was the character of the emperors that reigned in this period?
342. What change in the government did Diocletian introduce?
343. Under whom was the seat of the Roman empire removed and when?
344. What was his religion?

SECTION XLIV.

345. What was the general character of the government of Rome under Constantine?
346. In what way did he injure the army?
347. What was the policy pursued by the emperor Julian towards Christianity?
348. Who were the three emperors that succeeded in order to Julian?

SECTION XLV.

349. In whose reign did Christianity become the established religion of the Roman empire?
350. Why were the Romans less tolerant towards the Christian than they were towards the different pagan religions of other nations?
351. When were the books of the New Testament collected into a volume?
352. When was the Old Testament translated into Greek from the original Hebrew?
353. In what way did Christianity suffer in the third century?
354. Did Christianity become more or less pure as it received favour from the civil powers?

SECTION XLVI.

455. When and by whom was the city of Rome sacked and plundered?
356. What is the length of time from the building of Rome to the extinction of the empire?
357. What may be considered the ultimate cause of the ruin of the Roman Empire?
358. Who was the last emperor of Rome?
359. When was he compelled to resign the throne?
360. By whom was he compelled to do it?

SECTION XLVII.

361. From what country is it supposed that the Goths were originally derived?
362. What was the character of the ancient Scythians?
363. Of what nation were the Germans a branch?
364. What effect had the religion of the Goths upon them, as a warlike people?

SECTION XLVIII.

365. Were the Roman laws retained after Italy was conquered by the Goths?
366. What character does Tytler give the conquerors of Italy?
367. What government did the Goths establish in Italy after its conquest?
368. Was it elective or hereditary?

SECTION XLIX.

369. What are the most ancient books of history in existence?
370. Who are some of the earliest writers of profane history whose works are still extant?

371. What modern histories of Greece and Rome are most worthy of perusal to the person who has attended to original works named?
372. What may be considered the greatest magazine of historical knowledge ever collected?
373. What are esteemed the *lights* of history?

PART SECOND.

MODERN HISTORY.

SECTION I.

374. At what æra is the commencement of profane history dated?
375. What new and powerful dominion arose in the latter part of the sixth century?
376. To whom do the Arabians trace their descent?
377. When and where was Mahomet born?
378. What was his descent and education?
379. What is the sacred book of the Mahometan religion called?
380. By whom and under what circumstances was it written?
381. What are the nature and substance of Mahometan religion?
382. What caused the banishment of Mahomet from Mecca?
383. What is his flight called?
384. When did it take place?
385. Did the Mahometan religion have a rapid increase?
386. What was the title of the head of this empire?

SECTION II.

387. Who were the Franks?
388. From what did they receive this name?
389. Under whom and what circumstances were the Franks converted to Christianity?
390. Who delivered France from the ravages of the Saracens?
391. At what time did this take place?
392. With whom and under what circumstances commenced the second race of kings in France?
393. Who succeeded Pepin in the sovereignty of France?

SECTION III.

394. How was the power of the government divided and exercised in the early parts of the French monarchy?
395. What was the religious character of the ancient Germans?
396. What new system of policy arose at this time among the united Germans and Franks, which extended itself over most nations of Europe?
397. What is to be understood by the Feudal System?
398. What effect had the Feudal System on the power of the sovereign?
399. By what name is the second race of French kings called?

SECTION IV.

400. How came Charlemagne into possession of the undivided sovereignty of France?
401. What was his private character?
402. When did he die?
403. Who was his successor?

SECTION V.

404. What is said of Charlemagne in relation to commerce?
405. How did he view literature?
406. What style of architecture was successfully studied and cultivated in that age?
407. What sanguinary and most iniquitous portion of the present time may be traced to the age of Charlemagne?

SECTION VI.

408. What great heresies existed in the Christian church about this time?
409. By whom and when was the Arian heresy condemned?
410. What was a source of the most obstinate controversy in those ages?
411. What gave rise to penances and other religious voluntary suffering?
412. What effect had the conquests of Charlemagne on Christianity?

SECTION VII.

413. Who was the immediate successor of Charlemagne?
414. Did his empire remain entire under his successors?
415. What was the character of his successors?

SECTION VIII.

416. What was the condition of the Eastern empire during the eighth and ninth centuries?
417. What was the character of the emperors?
418. What religious dispute prevailed at this time?

SECTION IX.

419. Under whom did the Pope begin to acquire temporal power?
420. What is said of the religious character of the temporal princes of this period?
421. What check was there, at this time, to the increasing power of the church of Rome?
422. What is the character of the clergy of this period?

SECTION X.

423. By whom was the empire of Morocco founded?
424. When did the Saracens overrun and conquer Spain?
425. Was the Mahometan religion extensively professed?
426. What prevented the Saracens from raising an extensive empire?

SECTION XI.

427. What had been the condition of the empire founded by Charlemagne, in the tenth and eleventh centuries?
428. How were the emperors at this time elected?
429. Who were some of the most distinguished monarchs of Germany in the middle ages?
430. Were there frequent disputes between the Popes of Rome and German emperors?

SECTION XII.

431. From whom is it probable the British isles derived their first inhabitants?
432. What was the condition of the country when invaded by the Romans?
433. When did Julius Cæsar enter Britain?

434. When did a complete reduction of the island take place, and put it under the Roman power?
435. When did the Romans abandon the country?
436. What led the Saxons into Britain?
437. How long were the Saxons in conquering the Britons?
438. What was the government called, established by the Saxons?
439. When and by whom was the Saxon Heptarchy brought under one sovereign?
440. What general people for a long period subsequent to this, desolated the coasts of Britain?
441. What relationship was there between Alfred the Great and Egbert?
442. What is the character of Alfred?
443. When did he die?
444. Who were the immediate successors of Alfred?
445. What people invaded and obtained the government of England subsequent to the time of Alfred?
446. When was William duke of Normandy put in possession of the throne of England?

SECTION XIII.

447. What was the character of the Anglo-Saxon government?
448. How many ranks of people were there?
449. How did the Anglo-Saxons compare with the Normans in point of civilization?

SECTION XIV.

450. Who was elected to the throne of France, A. D. 987?
451. What was the prevailing passion among the nations of Europe during the tenth and eleventh centuries?
452. What was the state of the Northern powers of Europe in point of civilization, at this time?
453. What was a subject of dispute between the Pope and the Emperors?

SECTION XV.

454. What was the consequence of the battle of Hastings?
455. What was the end of William the conqueror?
456. What important law did he introduce into England?
457. Which part of his subjects were treated with most favour?
458. Who were some of the immediate successors of William the conqueror?
459. Who effected the conquest of Ireland?
460. What clouded the latter part of the reign of Henry II.?
461. What was the character of this monarch?
462. Who succeeded him on the throne?
463. How came Richard I. to be imprisoned in Germany?
464. Under what sovereign was the Magna Charta produced?

SECTION XVI.

465. What two factions were there in Italy in the thirteenth century?
466. What occasioned them?
467. What was the political state of Europe at this time?

SECTION XVII.

468. Who was the first promoter of the Crusades?
469. What was the object of the Crusades?
470. What was the number of Peter's army, and when did he commence his crusade to the Holy Land?

471. What became of this army?
472. When was a second crusade undertaken, and how many engaged in it?
473. What was the fate of this expedition?
474. Who headed the third crusade?
475. When was the fourth fitted out?
476. What particular success attended one, and what was its name?
477. Who undertook the last crusade into the East?
478. What became of Lewis IX.?
479. How many, is it supposed, of the persons who engaged in the crusades, perished?
480. What benefit resulted from the crusades?

SECTION XVIII

481. How was the profession of arms esteemed among the Germans?
482. What is said to have been characteristic of the Gothic nations?
483. When did chivalry attain its perfection?
484. What writings accompanied the adventures of chivalry?
485. Are works of fiction capable of producing good moral effects?

SECTION XIX

486. When did the crusaders take Constantinople?
487. How long did the French emperors govern it?
488. When may the rise of the house of Austria be dated?
489. How did the states of Italy compare at this time with most of the other countries of Europe?
490. What severe and bloody measure was adopted in relation to the Knights Templars?

SECTION XX

491. When did Switzerland become independent?
492. By what name was it then called?
493. To what government had it been subject?
494. What was the number of battles fought before it became independent?

SECTION XXI

495. What prince imposed a tribute on all the Italian states?
496. In whose time was the Papedom removed to Avignon?
497. How long did it remain there?
498. What act distinguished the reign of Charles IV.?
499. Who summoned the council of Constance, 1414?
500. What martyrdoms were the consequence of this council?
501. By whom was the wealth of the Germanic states possessed?

SECTION XXII

502. What character is given of Henry III.?
503. By whom was he made a prisoner?
504. Who succeeded Henry III. on the throne of England?
505. When and by whom was Wales conquered?

SECTION XXIII

506. What is the state of the Scottish history from the time of Malcolm III.?
507. Who were the two next successive kings of Scotland?
508. Who became competitors to the crown, 1291?
509. How was the dispute decided?

510. What distinguished warrior arose, at this time, to assert the liberties of his country?
511. What became of Wallace?
512. Who finally succeeded in delivering Scotland from the English and was crowned sovereign of it, 1306?

SECTION XXIV.

513. What statute was passed by Edward I. which related to taxes and imposts?
514. How many times in his reign is he said to have ratified the *Magna Charta*?
515. With how large an army did he invade Scotland?
516. With what force did Bruce meet him?
517. Who dethroned Edward II. and under what circumstances?
518. In what manner did Edward III. revenge the murder of his father?
519. On what did he found his claim to the throne of France?
520. When are the English said to have used artillery in battle?
521. What king of France was carried captive to England, and by whom?
522. What became of the captive king of France?
523. Who succeeded John in France and Edward III. in England?

SECTION XXV.

524. What became of Richard II. and who succeeded him?
525. What was the origin of the quarrels between the houses of Lancaster and York?
526. What induced Henry V. to invade France?
527. What was the result of this expedition?
528. On what pretext did Henry V. assume a right to the throne of France during the life of Charles VI.?
529. By what aid was Charles VII. enabled to secure the throne of France to himself?
530. What became of the Maid of Orleans?
531. What was the state of society in Europe at this period?
532. What circumstances show that it was in a low state?

SECTION XXVI.

533. At what time did the Turks cross over into Europe?
534. What Asiatic conqueror arose in the 14th century, who for a time checked the Turks in their career of conquest and oppression?
535. What effect did the death of Tamerlane have on the Turks?
536. What person subjected Constantinople to the power of the Turks?
537. When did this take place, and how long had the eastern empire then subsisted?
538. Did this terminate the empire of the East, as it was termed?

SECTION XXVII.

539. What is the government of Turkey?
540. What limits and restraints are there upon a Turkish Sultan?
541. What is the character of the people?
542. With what others are the principal functions of the government entrusted?
543. How are the revenues of the government obtained?

SECTION XXVIII.

544. What greatly increased the power of the French crown in the 15th century?

545. What was the character of Lewis XI.?
546. Who were the two immediate successors of Lewis XI., on the throne of France?
547. In what foreign enterprise did Charles VIII. of France engage?

SECTION XXIX

548. What circumstance united the kingdoms of Aragon and Castile under the same sovereign?
549. What institutions were formed in this period for the discovery and punishment of crimes?
550. When did Ferdinand take the title, king of Spain?
551. How long time did the dominion of the Moors continue in Spain?
552. On what account and when did Ferdinand expel the Jews from Spain?
553. How numerous were they?
554. What remarkable discovery was made in this reign?

SECTION XXX

555. What was the character of pope Alexander VI.?
556. What became of him?
557. Who conspired to deprive Lewis XII. of Naples?
558. When did he die?

SECTION XXXI

559. How did the partisans of York and Lancaster distinguish themselves from each other?
560. Which party triumphed?
561. How many of the Lancastrians were slain in the battle near Towton?
562. To whom was Edward IV., in the first instance, indebted for his throne?
563. What caused Warwick to turn against Edward?
564. What epithet was given to Warwick?
565. Who was the queen of Henry VI. and what is said of her character?
566. What of Henry VI.—of his queen Margaret—and of the Prince, their son?
567. Who was Richard III.?
568. How did he come to the throne?
569. What became of him?
570. What became of Edward V.?
571. How were the Houses of York and Lancaster united, which put a period to the civil wars between them?
572. What is said of the government of Henry VII.?

SECTION XXXII

573. What was the state of the feudal system in Scotland?
574. What was a constant policy of the Scottish kings?
575. What Scottish king was prisoner in London in company with John, king of France?
576. How long was he held in captivity there?
577. How long was James I. held in captivity by the English?
578. What advantage did he derive from his captivity?
579. To what end did the five Jameses reign?
580. With what English sovereign was James V. contemporary, and engaged in war?

SECTION XXXIII

581. What was the constant policy of the Scottish kings?

582. What rendered the police necessary?
583. In whom resided the legislative power?
584. Of what did the revenue of the sovereign consist?

SECTION XXXIV

585. Who were the first restorers of learning in Europe?
586. What sovereign in this age encouraged the revival of learning in Europe?
587. What distinguished genius appeared in the middle of the thirteenth century?
588. In what did the genius of Dante discover itself?
589. What led to a discovery of many of the ancient authors, during the fifteenth century?
590. What contributed much to the dissemination of knowledge at this period?
591. To what is to be traced modern dramatic composition?

SECTION XXXV

592. What was the boldest naval enterprise of the ancients?
593. What parts of Europe were unknown to the ancients?
594. To what sea was the commerce of the ancients mostly confined?
595. What cities of modern Europe first became commercial?
596. When and where was first established a national bank?
597. What were the Italian merchants called in the middle ages?
598. What gave rise to bills of Exchange?
599. When did commerce extend itself to the north of Europe?
600. For what purpose was the League of the Hanse towns formed?
601. When did the woollen manufactures of England become important?
602. What English sovereigns in these ages particularly encouraged commerce and the useful arts?

SECTION XXXVI

603. When was the mariner's compass first used?
604. What nation became particularly distinguished in the fifteenth century for naval enterprise?
605. When and by whom was the Cape of Good Hope doubled?
606. How extensive did the Portuguese possessions in India become at this time?
607. What effect had these discoveries on the commerce of Europe?
608. Who made repeated attempts to destroy the trade of the Portuguese?
609. What besides the Portuguese discoveries produced a spirit of commercial enterprise in England?
610. What has been the increase of population in Britain since the reign of Elizabeth?
611. What proportion of the population is supposed to be employed in manufactures and commerce?
612. How does it appear that there has been a great increase of national wealth in Britain?

SECTION XXXVII

613. Who were the parents of Charles V.?
614. When did he come to the throne of Spain?
615. Who was the competitor of Charles V. for the throne of Austria on the death of Maximilian?
616. Who was king of England at this time?
617. How did the war terminate between Charles and Francis?
618. With whom did Henry VIII. take part on the renewal of the war?
619. What induced Charles to conclude a treaty with Francis, in 1544?

620. When and by whom was the order of Jesuits founded?
621. What was the principle of the order?
622. What gave Charles perpetual disquiet in Germany?
623. At what age and where did he resign his dominions?

SECTION XXXVIII.

624. What was the condition of the German empire previous to the reign of Maximilian I.?
625. What emperor acquired the greatest power in Germany?

SECTION XXXIX.

626. What important events distinguished the age of Charles V.?
627. Who was a leading character in producing the Reformation?
628. Who was Roman Pontiff at the time?
629. What practice of the Romish church did Luther first attack?
630. What procured Henry VIII. the title of Defender of the Faith?
631. What distinguished reformer arose in Switzerland?
632. What sovereign at this time was upon the throne of Sweden, Denmark, and Norway?
633. Who was Gustavus Vasa?
634. What act of Leo X. and of Charles V. contributed to the reformation in the north?
635. From what circumstance did the Lutherans derive the name of Protestants?
636. Who became a distinguished convert to the doctrines of the reformation in Geneva?
637. What is said of the character of Calvin?

SECTION XL.

638. What reformer arose in England in the middle of the fourteenth century?
639. In what way had Wickliffe prepared the minds of the people of England for the reformation?
640. Who was the immediate cause of it?
641. What led Henry VIII. to declare himself head of the church in England?
642. When did he die, and by whom was he succeeded?
643. What checked the progress of reformation in England, in the year 1553?
644. How many Protestants suffered martyrdom during the reign of Mary, in England?
645. In whose reign did the Protestant religion become established according to its present form in England?

SECTION XLI.

646. Who discovered America?
647. To whom did he apply in vain for aid in making discoveries?
648. Who finally furnished him for the voyage?
649. How long after Columbus left the Canaries, before he discovered land?
650. In which of his voyages did he discover the continent of America?
651. From whom was the name of America received?
652. How did the Spaniards treat the inhabitants of the newly discovered countries?
653. When and by whom was the continent of America explored?
654. How long had the Mexican empire been founded at this time?
655. Who was the sovereign of it?

656. What was the result of the expedition against the Mexicans?
657. Who and with what success attempted to supersede Cortez?
658. What became of Montezuma?
659. Who was his successor, and what became of him?
660. When and by whom was an expedition undertaken against Peru?
661. What are some of the most important circumstances that attended this expedition?
662. What became of D'Almagro and Pizarro?
663. What constituted the principal value of the American Spanish possessions?

SECTION XLII

664. What effect had the success of the Spaniards on the other nations of Europe?
665. Who first settled Brazil, Florida and Canada?
666. From what did England derive her right to her American settlements?
667. Who first planted an English colony in America?
668. How do those parts of America at first settled by British colonists compare in natural fertility with the Spanish possessions?

SECTION XLIII

669. What was the state of the fine arts in Europe in the time of Leo X.?
670. What was their progress?
671. In what arts did the Italians excel?
672. What were some of the most distinguished Italian painters?
673. What were some of the most distinguished Italian sculptors?
674. What is the occasion of engraving on copper dated?

SECTION XLIV

675. What is the character of the Turks in the eleventh century?
676. From whom did the Turks take the island of Rhodes?
677. From what ancient nation are derived the principles of maritime jurisprudence among which modern nations?
678. What conquests did the Turks make in the sixteenth century?

SECTION XLV

679. What occasioned a revolution in Persia in the latter part of the fifteenth century?
680. What is the government of Persia?
681. From what country have proceeded the conquerors who possessed the principal revolutions of Asia?
682. What singular phenomenon does the kingdom of Tibet exhibit?

SECTION XLVI

683. Who has furnished the earliest accounts of India?
684. How do those accounts compare with the present condition of the Hindoos?
685. When did the Mohammedans begin to establish themselves in India?
686. What was the condition of the Mogul empire in the beginning of the eighteenth century?
687. What conquests and enlarged possession of the Mogul empire about the middle of the eighteenth century?

SECTION XLVII

688. How have the remains of the ancient knowledge of the Hindoos been preserved?

689. How has the body of Hindoo people been divided?
690. What inference is to be drawn from the classification of the Hindoos, as to their early civilization?
691. What was the civil policy of the Hindoos in the time of Alexander the great?
692. What is the antiquity of some Hindoo compositions lately translated?
693. What is the antiquity of some numerical tables lately obtained from the Brahmins by M. Gentil?
694. What do the writings of the Hindoo priests demonstrate?
695. What is the religion of India generally?

SECTION XLVIII

696. What is said of the laws and system of government in China?
697. When did the Tartars establish themselves permanently in the sovereignty of China?
698. When and by whom was the empire of Japan discovered?
699. Who carried on a considerable trade with the people of Japan?
700. What caused this trade to be broken off?
701. Why is it that the Dutch are still allowed to trade with the Japanese?

SECTION XLIX

702. To whom does Sir William Jones trace the origin of the Chinese?
703. What is the government of China?
704. How are learning bestowed in China?
705. What is the state of the sciences in China at this time?
706. What arts in China are carried to great perfection?
707. What are the morals of the Chinese?
708. What Chinese writer is said to have produced a good system of morality?
709. What is the religion of the emperor and the higher mandarins?

SECTION L

710. What was the opinion of Mr. Bailly concerning the rise and sciences among the nations of the east?
711. How long have they been stationary with the Chinese?
712. At how early a period are the Chaldeans represented to have been an enlightened people?
713. Is the opinion of Mr. Bailly well founded?

SECTION LI

714. Who took Calais from the English for the French?
715. How long had it been in possession of the English?
716. What was the character of Philip II.?
717. The government of the Prince of Orange?
718. For what purpose did he establish the Inquisition in those provinces?
719. What led to the establishment of the republic of the seven united provinces?
720. What is the chief magistrate called?
721. What became of the Prince of Orange?
722. Who aided this republic in obtaining independence?

SECTION LII

723. What was the government of the seven united provinces?
724. What important evil is there in the constitution of the government?
725. What was the authority of the chief magistrate?

726. Who almost annihilated the republic?
727. When was the Stadtholdership made hereditary?

SECTION LIII.

728. How was the loss of the Netherlands compensated to Philip II.?
729. When did he take possession of Portugal?
730. What naval enterprise engaged the attention of Philip?
731. What was the result of it?
732. What is the character of Philip?

SECTION LIV.

733. What accelerated the progress of reformation in France?
734. What two parties were engaged in a civil war in the latter part of the sixteenth century?
735. When was the massacre of St. Bartholomew?
736. What was the character of Charles IX. of France?
737. Who were his two immediate successors?
738. What became of them?
739. What great project was Henry IV. meditating, when assassinated?

SECTION LV.

740. When did Elizabeth come to the throne of England?
741. What was the state of the kingdom during her reign?
742. What fixed a stain on Elizabeth's character?
743. Under what pretence did Mary of Guise assume the arms and title of queen of England?
744. What form of religion became established in Scotland, in the reign of Elizabeth?
745. Who was a distinguished reformer in Scotland?
746. Who were the two husbands of Mary?
747. How came Mary in the hands of Elizabeth?
748. Under what pretence was Mary condemned and executed?
749. How long was she a captive in England?
750. At what age and when did Elizabeth die?

SECTION LVI.

751. Who succeeded Elizabeth on the throne of England?
752. What marked James unpopular with his subjects?
753. What was the object of the gunpowder treason?
754. By whom was the conspiracy formed?
755. What was a favourite object with James?
756. Who were his successors?
757. What were some of the principal subjects of dispute between Charles and his parliaments?
758. What caused the scots to rebel and take up arms against the government of Charles?
759. What two distinguished individuals at this time were impeached by the commons and beheaded?
760. What important occurrence was there at this time in Ireland?
761. When the civil war commenced, who were on the side of the king, and who on that of the parliament?
762. Who directed the measures of the army of parliament?
763. In what way was Cromwell able to procure the death of Charles?
764. When was he beheaded?
765. How far were the proceedings of the commons justifiable?

SECTION LVII

766. What part did the parliament of Scotland take in regard to the king?
767. On what condition was Charles II. proclaimed king of Scotland?
768. Who were the *Covenanters* of Scotland?
769. What became of Charles II. when overcome by Cromwell?
770. What was the title of Cromwell?
771. What was the character of his government?
772. At what age did he die, and who was his successor?
773. What was the parliament called that put to death King Charles?
774. Under what circumstances and when was Charles II. restored?

SECTION LVIII

775. What was the character of Charles II.?
776. When were the epithets of Whig and Tory first known, and how were they applied?
777. Who was the successor of Charles II.?
778. What made him unpopular with his subjects?
779. By what means was Charles removed from the throne?
780. On whom was the crown then settled?
781. What became of James?

SECTION LIX

782. To what period may the rudiments of the English constitution be traced?
783. In whose reign was instituted the trial by jury?
784. In whose reign did the *Magna Charta* originate?
785. In whose reign was the act of *Habeas Corpus* passed?
786. Of what does the parliament of Great Britain consist?
787. Of what does the house of lords consist?
788. Of what does the house of commons consist?
789. What is the act of Habeas Corpus?

SECTION LX

790. How are the necessary supplies of the sovereign obtained?
791. When did the English national debt arise?
792. What constitutes the "funding fund"?
793. Is it probable the debt will ever become extinct?

SECTION LXI

794. To what monarch was France indebted for much of her good manners in the reign of Louis XIII.?
795. What was the character of Louis XIII.?
796. What became the condition of the Protestants in the reign of Louis XIII.?
797. When did he die?

SECTION LXII

798. What weak and despicable act did Philip III. commit?
799. When did Portugal become an independent sovereignty?
800. Who became her first king?
801. What is said of Spain in the reigns of Philip III. and IV.?

SECTION LXIII

802. What was the condition of Germany when Charles V. abdicated the throne?
803. What was then and for a long period afterwards a subject of contention in Germany?

804. What peace put a period to this contention?
805. When did the peace of Westphalia take place?

SECTION LXIV

806. When did Lewis XIV. come to the throne of France?
807. At what age?
808. What led to a civil war in the early part of his reign?
809. When did Mazarin die?
810. What change took place in the affairs of France at this time?
811. What was reckoned one of the weakest and most impolitic measures of Lewis XIV.?
812. What was the state of the finances of France in the latter part of the reign of Lewis XIV.?
813. What character is given of Lewis XIV.?
814. At what age and when did he die?

SECTION LXV

815. What change took place in the government of France, under the Capetian race of kings?
816. What power arose to limit and check the royal prerogative, in and from the reign of Lewis XIII.
817. What made the powers of parliament a constant subject of dispute?
818. In what way was the crown of France to descend?
819. What was the established religion of France?
820. What took place in the assembly of the Gallican church, in 1682?

SECTION LXVI

821. What two distinguished characters in the north of Europe were contemporary with Lewis XIV.?
822. When is Russia said to have received Christianity?
823. What sovereign first published a code of laws in Russia?
824. When was Siberia added to the Russian empire?
825. When and how did Peter become master of the Russian empire?
826. How was the early part of his life spent?
827. What method did he adopt to improve himself in the sciences and useful arts?
828. When and at what age did Charles XII come to the throne of Sweden?
829. At what age and with what success was his first campaign made?
830. What change did he effect in the government of Poland?
831. By whom was he defeated?
832. How many of his army remained to him after this defeat?
833. To what means did Charles then resort to regain his lost power?
834. What became of Charles XII.?
835. When did Peter the Great die?

SECTION LXVII

836. Who were the principal philosophers in the seventeenth century?
837. For what was Galileo imprisoned?
838. What institutions were formed which contributed to the advancement of science and the arts?
839. What work of Newton contains the elements of all philosophy?
840. What was Locke's theory concerning the human mind?
841. What are some of the most distinguished poetical productions of modern times?
842. Who are some of the most eminent English Poets?
843. Who were distinguished writers in history during the 16th and 17th centuries?

APPENDIX.

HISTORY OF THE JEWS.

SECTION I.

841. What constitutes the basis of the first historical records?
845. How can we account for the elaborate relations of the first historians?
846. From what period are the details of profane history to be received as facts?
847. What historical records are the most ancient as well as the most rational?
848. What historical facts do they contain, not found in other history?

SECTION II.

849. Who were the Israelites?
850. Why were they suffered to be subdued by the Romans?
851. In what condition do their descendants exist?
852. What circumstance illustrates the truth and inspiration of the prophetic writings?

SECTION III.

853. How long before Herodotus did Moses live?
854. What acknowledgment did Porphyry make as to the antiquity of the writings of Moses?
855. What pagan traditions confirm the truth of the Pentateuch?
856. What is said of Zoroaster?
857. What Jewish historian successfully vindicates the authority of the Jewish scriptures?

SECTION IV.

858. What are the principal facts recorded in the book of Genesis?
859. What remarkable prophecy of Isaiah is there concerning Cyrus?
860. And what one concerning Babylon?
861. What was the length of time from the giving of the law to Moses to the reformation in worship and government of the Jews by Samuel?
862. What hereditary distinction of rank existed among the Jews?
863. What is said of Moses, Elijah, and Ezekiel?
864. What internal undoubted characteristic of truth is there in the scriptures?

SECTION V.

865. When was the creation of the world accomplished?
866. What was one of the most remarkable circumstances of the antediluvians?
867. How long did some of the oldest of them live?
868. Why did the Almighty destroy the world by a deluge of waters?
869. Who were saved from it and by what means?
870. Who were some of the first inventors of the useful arts?

SECTION VI.

871. What is said of the three sons of Noah?

872. What is the most important event between the deluge and the *call* of Abraham?
875. Of what city was Ur of the beginning?

SECTION VII

874. From whom do the Jews derive their origin?
875. What relationship was there between Jacob and Abraham?
876. How came Joseph, the son of Jacob, to be in Egypt?
877. By what means was he made governor of Egypt?
878. How came his father and brethren to remove thither?
879. How long did the Israelites remain in Egypt?
880. What were some of the circumstances connected with their leaving it?
881. How long after leaving Egypt did Moses die?

SECTION VIII

882. What caused a bargain to be formed between the Syrian chiefs?
883. Who was the successor of Moses in the government of Israel?
884. How were the Israelites governed after the death of Joshua?
885. Who were the two last Judges of Israel?
886. What change took place in the government on the death of Samuel?

SECTION IX

887. What was the original government of Israel called?
888. What moral and political change took place on the death of Joshua, in the condition of Israel?
889. Why was the regal government introduced?

SECTION X

890. How long did Saul reign over Israel?
891. By what means was David raised to the throne as his successor?
892. What prosperous events characterized the reign of David?
893. What adverse ones characterized it?
894. How long did David reign, and who succeeded him?
895. What is the most remarkable event in the reign of Solomon?
896. What books are ascribed to him?
897. Under what circumstances was the kingdom divided?
898. By what names were the two kingdoms subsequently to this division called?
899. What became of the ten tribes who constituted the kingdom of Israel?
900. Whereto sprang the Samaritans?
901. When and in what manner ended the kingdom of Judah?

SECTION XI

902. How long were the Jews held captive in Babylon?
903. By whom were they released?
904. From what time had prophecies been the hopeless called Jews?
905. What caused Alexander the great to march to Jerusalem with hostile intentions?
906. By what means was he appeased?
907. What favours did he then bestow on them?
908. What privileges did Ptolemy Lagi or the Sogdi confer on the Jews, prior to the Seleucidæ?
909. In what manner did the five brothers named Maccabees become distinguished?
910. What was their fidelity?

911. When and by whom were the Jews conquered by the Romans?
912. Who was then placed on the throne of David under the protection of the Romans?
913. By what memorable event was the reign of Herod distinguished?
914. By whom and when was the Jewish nation extinguished?
915. How many Jews are supposed to have perished in their last war with the Romans?

SECTION XII.

916. What is the period of scriptural history?
917. Where is it supposed that the Jews obtained their knowledge of the arts and sciences?
918. What was the state of commerce among the Jews?
919. With what intention does Tytler conclude his work on history?

CONTINUATION, OR PART THIRD.

SECTION I.

920. What was the age of Lewis XV. when the crown of France descended to him?
921. When and what heirs to the crown of France died within a few months?
922. What made it necessary for France on the death of Lewis XIV. to preserve peace with foreign powers?
923. Who was regent of France during the minority of Lewis XV.?
924. What distinguished minister was at the court of Spain, in this period?
925. What was the character of the duke of Orleans, the regent of France?
926. By what means were the Stuarts and the exiles to revert to France?

SECTION II.

927. Who succeeded queen Anne on the throne of England?
928. What acts of parliament had passed respecting the succession of George I. concerning religion?
929. When did he enter his new dominions?
930. How did the rebellion of 1715 in Scotland terminate?
931. By what name were the followers of the Pretender called?
932. By what name was the party called to which George I. committed the government of the realm?
933. Who was king of Sweden at this time?
934. For what purpose and by whose aid was he nearly just gained to invade Britain?
935. What ruined the prospects of Alberoni?
936. In what way did he attempt dethroning George?
937. Why did he not succeed?
938. At what age and when did George I. die?

SECTION III.

939. When did Charles VI. become emperor of Austria and Germany?
940. Who was the Austrian commander in the last war of Charles VI. with the Turks?

941. What arrangement did he make for the descent of the Austrian crown?
942. What was this arrangement or law act in making it called?
943. What did Charles VI. die, and who succeeded him?
944. Was the permitted to enjoy undisturbed the dominions descended to her?
945. What circumstances were calculated to raise up competitors to different parts of her estate?
946. Who was the most forward and active of the queen's opponents?
947. What prevented the competitors of the queen from succeeding in stripping their widow?
948. Which one of them succeeded in obtaining the imperial crown in 1741?
949. How long after this did he live?
950. On his death who obtained the imperial crown?
951. When did the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle take place?

SECTION IV

952. At what time and age did George II. come to the throne of England?
953. Who was the queen?
954. Who was prime minister of England at this time?
955. What caused him to resign?
956. Upon what two occasions had he views been thwarted?
957. Where did he die?
958. What interesting event occurred in Scotland the same year?
959. What was the object of the insurrection in Scotland?
960. In what battle were the hopes of the Stuart family for ever blasted?
961. What became of the heir of this family after that battle?
962. What is considered the most unfortunate circumstance attending the Scottish rebellion?
963. What important act of parliament was passed in the year 1751?
964. Where and in what year did George II. die?

SECTION V

965. By what treaty was the house of Hanover effectually established on the British throne?
966. How was the British navy benefited by this treaty compared with the naval power of other European nations?
967. What did Austria lose by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle?
968. What did Prussia gain by it?
969. How did it affect Holland?
970. By what means was Prussia introduced into the southern states of Europe?

SECTION VI

971. What became a subject of jealousy and future warfare, after the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, between France and England?
972. In what respect did the power of Europe, in 1748, extend to Asia and America?
973. What French governor in the East Indies attempted to bring the Mogul empire under the dominion of France?
974. In what way did the French in America gain an advantage over the English?
975. When did the French war in America commence?
976. What number of French men-of-war were captured and destroyed by the English early the first year of the war?

977. When the war was extended to Europe, what powers arranged themselves against each other?
978. Who was king of Prussia at this time?
979. What is his character?
980. What has this war been termed?
981. How many men have been supposed to have perished annually in the campaigns of it?
982. What advantage did the English gain in America?
983. What new ally did France obtain in the year of 1744?
984. What induced him to join the league against England?
985. What advantages did England gain by this war?
986. What change in the ministry of England contributed to the peace?

SECTION VII.

987. When did George III. succeed to the throne of Britain?
988. What was one of his first acts which showed him to be the friend of liberty?
989. What gave rise to distressing troubles in the year 1763?
990. How did the measures of said Bute differ from those of Mr. Pitt?
991. What contributed to revive the first years of George III. unpaid?
992. What besides public addresses and remonstrances contributed to the popular fervour and agitation of spirit so prevailing at that period?
993. What constitutional question then called forth [illegible] at this time?
994. For what is the year 1764 remarkable?

SECTION VIII.

995. What was the pretence for taxing the American colonies?
996. What was the first instance of imposing taxes [illegible] without their consent?
997. When was this imposed?
998. When was it formally repealed?
999. What reason is there for supposing that the Americans did not complain and petition when they first made opposition to the British government?
1000. How long was it after the passing of the stamp act before the commencement of hostilities?
1001. When and where was American independence declared?
1002. Who were sent to France, and when, to solicit aid for the Americans?
1003. What other powers [illegible] France, [illegible] England?
1004. When did Great Britain ratify the treaty which admitted the American independence?

SECTION IX.

1005. Who laid the foundation for the French revolution?
1006. Why were the Jesuits banished from Portugal in the year 1759?
1007. What charge was attempted to be laid on them at Paris, unsuccessfully?
1008. When was the order of Jesuits abolished in France?
1009. From what other countries were they expelled, and when?
1010. When did the Emperor of France, Alexander Louis XVI., marry?
1011. When did he come to the throne?
1012. What [illegible] Austria [illegible] between the court of Versailles and America?
1013. Who were the most eminent friends of liberty in the British parliament?
1014. What, at this time, produced an extraordinary effect on the Parisians, against the encroachments of the French court?

1015. What particular difficulties had the king to encounter?
1016. What, in the year 1788, tended to hasten the French revolution and bring matters to a crisis?
1017. Who first called for the states-general?
1018. Who was in the French ministry when the states-general was called?

SECTION X.

1019. What inconsistency was there in the conduct of Maria Theresa concerning Poland?
1020. What led to a war between Austria and Prussia, in the year 1778?
1021. What part did Austria take in regard to the war for American independence?
1022. When and at what age did Maria Theresa die?

SECTION XI.

1023. How long before the death of his mother, Maria Theresa, did Joseph II. come to the imperial throne of Austria?
1024. In what manner did he labour to promote the information and real happiness of his subjects?
1025. What was the population of his dominions?
1026. What important edict was passed by him, October 31, 1781?
1027. When did the Netherlands declare themselves independent of Austria?
1028. When did Joseph II. die, and by whom was he succeeded?
1029. How long did Leopold reign?
1030. What succeeded him and who?
1031. What evil did he experience from taking part against the French revolutionists?
1032. By whom were the Austrians assisted against the French in the war of 1799?

SECTION XII.

1033. When was the states-general assembled?
1034. What was the French state prison called?
1035. What became of it?
1036. How many families were there at this time in France of the ancient hereditary nobility?
1037. In what way did the king attempt to escape himself from the revolutionary tyrants that ruled him?
1038. When was the national assembly dissolved?
1039. What prevented Sweden and Russia from engaging in hostilities against the French?
1040. What circumstance did Brissot seize with opportunity to change the king with making war upon his people?
1041. What has the period of the French history been called?
1042. Who was at the head of affairs in France?
1043. How many, suspected of being aristocrats, were assassinated on the second of September?
1044. When was the king brought to trial?
1045. When was he executed?
1046. Into how many factions were the revolutionists divided, and what were they called?
1047. Which one triumphed?
1048. What became of the queen of France?

SECTION XIII.

1049. What change took place in the ministry of Great Britain after the peace with America?
1050. Who succeeded Mr. Fox in the British ministry?
1051. What is the Sinking Fund of Great Britain?
1052. What important prosecution was undertaken at this time by the British parliament?
1053. How long did it last, and what was its result?
1054. When was the attention of the house of commons first called to the slave trade?
1055. When was it abolished?
1056. What event compelled the British parliament to meet on the 20th of November 1715?
1057. What occurrence arose to threaten war between England and Spain, in the year 1790?
1058. What led to the declaration of war against the king of Great Britain, by France, in the year 1793?
1059. With what success was the war prosecuted?
1060. What important occurrence took place in Ireland, 1798?
1061. What important event in Ireland succeeded the suppression of the rebellion?
1062. What took place in India during the last year of the eighteenth century?
1063. What led to the peace of Amiens, between France and England, October 1st, 1801?

SECTION XIV.

1064. What was the situation of France towards the close of the year 1793?
1065. What took place on the 17th of November, 1793?
1066. What alteration was then made in the calendar?
1067. When and where did Napoleon Bonaparte first distinguish himself?
1068. What became of Robespierre?
1069. What was the government of France, established and proclaimed in 1795?
1070. What were the affairs of France externally at this time?
1071. Who were some of her most distinguished generals?
1072. What territories were added to the French republic?
1073. What became of Louis XVII.?

SECTION XV.

1074. When did Bonaparte receive the chief command of the French army in Italy?
1075. What was his age at that time?
1076. On the reduction of Mantua, what did he state to his soldiers had been their success?
1077. Why were the Venetians unwilling to take part either with the Austrians or French?
1078. Of what dishonourable conduct was Bonaparte guilty, in relation to the Venetians?
1079. What took place on the 4th and 5th of September, 1797?
1080. Upon what expedition did Bonaparte enter, in the year 1798?
1081. What success did he have in the expedition?
1082. What lessened his triumph and gave a new turn to the war?
1083. What change took place in the French government on Bonaparte's return from Egypt?

1084. When, by whom and with what result was the battle of Marengo fought?
1085. When and between whom was the treaty of Luneville signed?
1086. When and between whom was the treaty of Amiens signed?
1087. What was the French power, and what were her possessions at this time?

SECTION XVI

1088. What regulation did Bonaparte make for religion in France?
1089. What took place on the 2d of August, 1802?
1090. What led to a renewal of hostilities between France and England, 1803?
1091. On the renewal of hostilities, what security did Bonaparte take for the future good conduct of England?
1092. What military enterprise did he project?
1093. What took place on the 12th of May, and the 2d of December, 1804?
1094. Why did general Moreau come to America?
1095. What coalesced powers, Prussia, and Austria, to unite in hostilities against Napoleon?
1096. What took place on the 21st of October, 1805?
1097. After what battle did the emperor of Austria solicit peace?
1098. What appointed to lead to the exaltation of Joseph Bonaparte to the throne of Naples?
1099. What change took place in the government of Holland, in 1806?
1100. What conspicuous place, in the same year, in the political condition of Germany?
1101. How were Bonaparte to be in Berlin, in November, of this year?
1102. What extraordinary decree did he decree, while there?
1103. What [illegible] did the emperor of Russia make to the French emperor in the treaty of Tilsit?

SECTION XVII

1104. When did Charles IV. come to the throne of France?
1105. What caused the Spaniards, in 1808, to invade France?
1106. What was the consequence of this invasion to Spain?
1107. In what manner did the Dauphin fall into the hands of the French?
1108. What led to the war between England and Spain in 1808?
1109. Why did the royal family of Portugal remove to America, and when?
1110. On what account was Portugal invaded and oppressed by the Spanish authorities?
1111. By what means was the Spanish throne declared vacant and Joseph Bonaparte proclaimed king of Spain?
1112. What foreign power aided Spain and Portugal, against the French?
1113. In what battle were the French beaten and compelled to evacuate Portugal?
1114. When and under whom did the British army enter Spain?
1115. What became of Sir John Moore?
1116. When did Sir Arthur Wellesley, with fresh troops from England, enter Spain?
1117. For what service was he raised to a peerage?
1118. What battle caused the gates of Madrid to be thrown open to the Spanish patriots in 1812?
1119. When was the battle of Vittoria fought?
1120. What were the consequences of it to the French?

SECTION XVIII

1121. What was the partition treaty between France and Spain?

1122. What was the Milan decree?
1123. Who was created king of Naples when Joseph Bonaparte removed to Spain?
1124. How long did the war of Austria last, which commenced in 1809?
1125. On what condition was Austria able to obtain peace?
1126. When did Bonaparte's second marriage take place?
1127. When was the war renewed with Russia?
1128. With how large an army did Bonaparte invade Russia, in 1812?
1129. What was the success of this expedition?
1130. With what force did he commence hostilities in 1813?
1131. What battle completely disconcerted the French emperor?
1132. When did the allies pass the Rhine?
1133. When did they reach Paris?
1134. On what conditions was Bonaparte permitted to abdicate the French throne?
1135. When did the Bourbons return to Paris?

SECTION XIX

1136. From what cause had Poland suffered much?
1137. What charge did Charles XII. make on the state of Poland?
1138. By the aid of whose power was the family of Augustus kept upon the throne of Poland during the first half of the eighteenth century?
1139. Who succeeded Augustus III. and when?
1140. What internal dispute greatly distracted Poland at this time?
1141. With whom did the plan of dismembering Poland originate?
1142. What reasons were given by the partitioning powers for the dismemberment of Poland?
1143. Did the Poles willingly acquiesce in the measure?
1144. When was the division actually agreed upon and sanctioned by the Polish diet?
1145. When did a *second* partition take place, and when a third?
1146. What became of Stanislaus, the last king of Poland?
1147. When and by whom was the kingdom declared re-established?
1148. What is the present political condition of it?

SECTION XX

1149. When were hostilities renewed by England against France?
1150. What caused Spain also to be involved with Great Britain?
1151. How did the English evidence the value of peace to England? What splendid victory did the English obtain over the French and Spanish, in 1805?
1152. Of what acts of injustice were the English guilty towards the Danes?
1153. What caused the royal family of France to take refuge in England, in 1807?
1154. What were the English *orders in council* issued in January and November, 1807?
1155. When was the prince of Wales appointed regent of Great Britain?
1156. Why was he appointed?
1157. What distinguished personage was assassinated in the month of May, 1812?
1158. What interesting event took place in England in May, 1816?
1159. By what melancholy event was it succeeded in November of the following year?
1160. When did George III. die?

SECTION XXI

1161. How did the French army feel toward the emperor Napoleon, after he was exiled?
1162. When did Bonaparte land in France, on his return from Elba?
1163. When did he enter Paris?
1164. When was the battle of Waterloo fought, which for ever terminated his prospects?
1165. When did he arrive at St. Helena, to which he was banished?
1166. What resolution was adopted by the allied military commanders in relation to the works of art, which the French had collected in former victories?
1167. What precaution did the allies adopt to prevent future revolutions in that country?

SECTION XXII

1168. Who were the three immediate successors of Peter I. upon the throne of Russia?
1169. How long after the death of her father did the princess Elizabeth come to the throne?
1170. How long did she reign, and who succeeded her?
1171. What became of Peter III.?
1172. What was the character of Catharine II. his widow, who succeeded?
1173. When did Alexander, the present emperor of Russia, come to the throne?
1174. What became of his predecessor?
1175. How long has Prussia existed as a kingdom?
1176. How many kings have reigned over it?
1177. Which of these did most toward raising the kingdom to the first degree of power and renown?
1178. What two princesses were there in Sweden in the reign of Frederick?
1179. How long did Gustavus III. reign?
1180. How did he come by his death?
1181. Why did Gustavus IV. abdicate the throne?
1182. Who is the present king of Sweden?
1183. When did he come to the throne?
1184. How many kings have reigned in Denmark since the close of the seventeenth century?
1185. In what war was Christian VII. connected with George III. of England?
1186. Who did his queen, Caroline Matilda, retire to, and end her days in Germany?
1187. Who is the present king of Denmark?

SECTION XXIII.

1188. In what dispute was Switzerland involved during the first part of the 16th century?
1189. Which of the popes of Rome suppressed the order of Jesuits?
1190. Who was raised to the papal chair in 1775?
1191. At what age, where, and where did he die?
1192. How came he at Valence?
1193. When, was his successor chosen, and by what name is he called?
1194. When did he aid in establishing the catholic religion in France?
1195. What injury did he afterwards receive from France?

SECTION XXIV

1196. Who was the reigning prince of India in the beginning of the 13th century?

1197. To what age did he live?
1198. In what manner did he come to the throne?
1199. What singular fact is mentioned as evidence of the contentions common to the throne, with that semi-barbarous people?
1200. What chartered privilege has the English East India Company with this people?
1201. When did the Company receive this privilege?
1202. What description of the people is called sepoys?
1203. Who is regarded as the founder of the British empire in India?
1204. When did the British parliament make provision to prevent abuses of power in India?
1205. What distinguished individuals were instrumental in the first reforms under the new system?
1206. What is the reason why this system was not scrupulously adhered to?
1207. What was the object of Tippoo in regard to the English?
1208. For what object was the East India College established?
1209. What is the population of British India?

STATE OF ARTS, SCIENCES, RELIGION, LAWS, GOVERNMENT, &c.

1210. What countries have been particularly distinguished in literature, arts, and science, in the 18th century?
1211. Which of the sciences in particular have been much cultivated and advanced in this time?
1212. In what particulars has chemistry undergone important changes in the latter part of the 18th century?
1213. Who claim to be the authors of the new theory of chemistry?
1214. What is now ascertained to be the nature of atmospheric air?
1215. By whom was the discovery of vital air, or oxygen gas, made?
1216. To what branch of chemistry is the discovery of the decomposition of water owing?
1217. Who discovered the constituent parts or principles of water?
1218. What are they called?
1219. Who are some of the most distinguished chemists of the 18th century?

BOTANY.

1220. Where and when was Botany born?
1221. What is the foundation of an systematic botany?
1222. With how many species of plants are botanists now said to be acquainted?
1223. What French botanist has done much for the benefit of the science?
1224. What is the difference between the system of Linnæus and that of Jussieu?

ELECTRICITY.

1225. Who were some of the persons who first wrote learnedly on the subject of electricity?
1226. Who proved that the electric fluid and lightning are the same thing?
1227. To what practical purposes did he apply this?
1228. Of whom was Galvanism the discovery?
1229. What is Galvanism called?
1230. What English philosopher has become much celebrated for his electro-chemical researches?

MINERALOGY AND GEOLOGY

1231. When did the modern scientific arrangements of minerals begin to occupy the attention of naturalists?
1232. Who has the credit of reducing the science into classes and orders?
1233. From what did geology arise?
1234. What is *geology*?

GEOGRAPHY

1235. What two new quarters of the world have been presented to us, in the last century, according to the French geographers?
1236. What does Australasia include?
1237. What does Polynesia include?
1238. What took place in 1764, in evidence of the improvements in civilization?
1239. What eminent Prussian traveller has contributed to the perfection of geographical knowledge?
1240. From what period have the Russian sovereigns made laudable efforts to obtain correct geographical information?
1241. Has the science of astronomy undergone as great changes as the other sciences named during the last century?
1242. How many planets have been discovered in that time?
1243. What fact is stated from which we can form some conjecture of the number of fixed stars?

1244. What French writer did much to unsettle the minds of his countrymen on religion and politics?
1245. From whom has it been supposed that Voltaire imbibed his heretical sentiments?
1246. Who were the principal deistical writers of England?
1247. What countera cted the tendency of their writings?
1248. What other eminent French philosopher visited England, besides Voltaire, About the same time?
1249. To what did he principally confine his views?
1250. What were the political opinions of Rousseau?
1251. What was the origin of the French Encyclopedia?
1252. What courts of Europe were thrown open to the French philosophers?
1253. Is it to be supposed that the French philosophers, to whom the revolution has been imputed, contemplated the awful catastrophe of that event?
1254. Who was chiefly instrumental in introducing the improvements of the 18th century into Russia?

DISCOVERIES AND INVENTIONS

1255. What are the principal discoveries and inventions of modern times?
1256. What effect had the French revolution on the people of other countries?
1257. What moral improvements have taken place in the condition of various civilized nations?

RELIGION.

1258. In what countries does paganism prevail?
1259. What is the present condition of the Jews?
1260. Where does Mahometanism prevail?
1261. What are the principal sects of the Christian religion?
1262. What sects have been most active as missionaries?

1263. What change has the papal authority experienced in the time under consideration?

HISTORY, POLITE LITERATURE, FINE ARTS, &c.

1264. What Germans have been distinguished in literature, and the fine arts?
1265. Who in France?
1266. Who in Great Britain?
1267. Who in Italy?

TREATY OF VIENNA, 1815.

1268. What additions of territory was given to Russia, and what new title to the Czar?
1269. What is to be the condition of Cracow?
1270. How did this treaty affect Saxony?
1271. How did it affect Prussia?
1272. What change took place in the Netherlands?

PART FOURTH.

UNITED STATES.

SECTION I.

1273. When and by whom was America discovered?
1274. Under whose patronage was it discovered?
1275. What part of it was discovered first?
1276. Why were the islands first discovered called the West Indies?
1277. Why was the continent called America?
1278. How long time after Columbus sailed from the United States be reached St. Salvador?
1279. To what governments did he apply for patronage without success?

SECTION II.

1280. By whom and when was the continent of North America discovered?
1281. On what account did Virginia derive its name?
1282. Who made the first attempt to colonize this part of the continent?
1283. To whom did Sir Walter Raleigh afterwards assign his interest in the country?
1284. From what did James river take its name?
1285. On what account did capt. John Smith obtain his first release from the Indians?
1286. Who effected his second release from them?
1287. On what account was the cultivation of the soil neglected by the first colonists?
1288. What is the history of Pocahontas connected with saving the life of capt. Smith?
1289. Who first brought the African negroes into this part of the country?
1290. What part did the Virginians take in contests in the revolution of the mother country under Cromwell?
1291. What was the population of Virginia in 1688?

SECTION III.

1292. What was the origin of the Pilgrim's colony?
1293. Where was the settlement made?
1294. Of how many persons did the colony at first consist?
1295. Of how many did it consist two years afterwards?
1296. How many emigrants came to Massachusetts, in the year 1629?
1297. What led to the first settlement of Rhode Island and Providence plantations?
1298. Who laid the foundation of Hartford, Springfield, and Weathersfield?
1299. When and by whom was New-Hampshire first settled?
1300. When did a systematic warfare commence between the English and Indians?
1301. What number of British subjects had settled in New-England, up to 1642?
1302. What instance of religious persecution took place in Massachusetts, about the middle of the 17th century?
1303. When and what were the pretensions of the Indian whirlwind?
1304. When was Harvard college founded?
1305. From whom did Maryland derive its name, and by whom was it first settled?
1306. By whom was New-York first settled?
1307. What does it correspond to the English?
1308. By whom and under what circumstances was Pennsylvania settled?
1309. When and by whom was Georgia settled?

SECTION IV.

1310. What settlement had the French in America?
1311. In what way did France endeavour to control the English within narrow limits, or to drive them from the continent?
1312. When, and what method did the French recently adopt to support the English claims, over the Spanish territory?
1313. When and with what force was general Braddock sent out to support these claims?
1314. What was the success of Braddock's expedition?
1315. How many expeditions were attempted early in the campaign and unsuccessful to the English?
1316. What led to a change in English prospects?
1317. What successful English general was killed in the capture of Quebec?
1318. How many settlers did the colonies furnish in the French war?
1319. When was the Danish treaty all passed?
1320. What is the reasons were it was opposed?
1321. Which of the colonies proposed a commercial congress to be holden at New-York?
1322. When was the law repealed?
1323. What bill was passed on the repeal day?
1324. What instructions took place in Boston, in 1768?
1325. What change took place on the 12th day of last March?
1326. What disturbances took place in Boston, in March 1770?
1327. What took place in 1773?
1328. What occurrence was early 1775, in Boston, to the British governor of its province to be?
1329. Who was the British commander-in-chief in Boston, at this time?
1330. What took place at the congress of 1774, holden in Philadelphia?
1331. Where and under what circumstances was split the first cannon of the revolutionary war?
1332. What led to the burning of Charlestown?

1333. Who headed an expedition into Canada?
1334. With what success was it made?
1335. By whom was general Gage superseded?
1336. When did the British evacuate Boston?
1337. When was published the declaration of American independence?
1338. What tended much to raise the desponding hopes of Americans in the latter part of 1776?
1339. What splendid advantages did the Americans gain in 1777?
1340. When was a treaty of alliance formed between the French and Americans?
1341. Who took the command of the English army on the return of general Howe?
1342. Why was general Lee superseded?
1343. What took place on the 14th July, 1779?
1344. Where, and under what circumstances was count Pulaski mortally wounded?
1345. What prevented West Point from falling into the possession of the English?
1346. What [illegible] French military and naval commanders were sent to the aid of America?
1347. What event at length served to close the contest between England and America?
1348. How much money did England expend, and how many lives did she sacrifice in this war?

SECTION V

1349. When did the convention meet to form a new constitution?
1350. When and where did the first congress meet under the new constitution?
1351. What produced an insurrection in the western part of Pennsylvania?
1352. What was the state of affairs between the United States and France, during the revolution in the latter?
1353. When did congress first meet in the city of Washington?
1354. What are the principal particulars of the war with Tripoli?
1355. When and for how much was Louisiana purchased?

SECTION VI

1356. What were the particulars that led to the suspension of commodore Barron?
1357. What led to the declaration of war on the 18th of June, 1812, between the United States and Great Britain?
1358. What were some of the principal disasters on land, which the Americans experienced during the war?
1359. What were their principal and most glorious successes on land?
1360. What naval victories did they obtain?
1361. What naval losses did they experience?
1362. What American officers were killed during the war?
1363. What British officers were killed during it?
1364. When and where was a treaty of peace signed?
1365. Who were the commissioners?
1366. What states, since the admission of Louisiana in 1812, have been admitted into the union?
1367. What accession of territory did the United States receive in 1819?
1368. What was the population of the United States in 1820?

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